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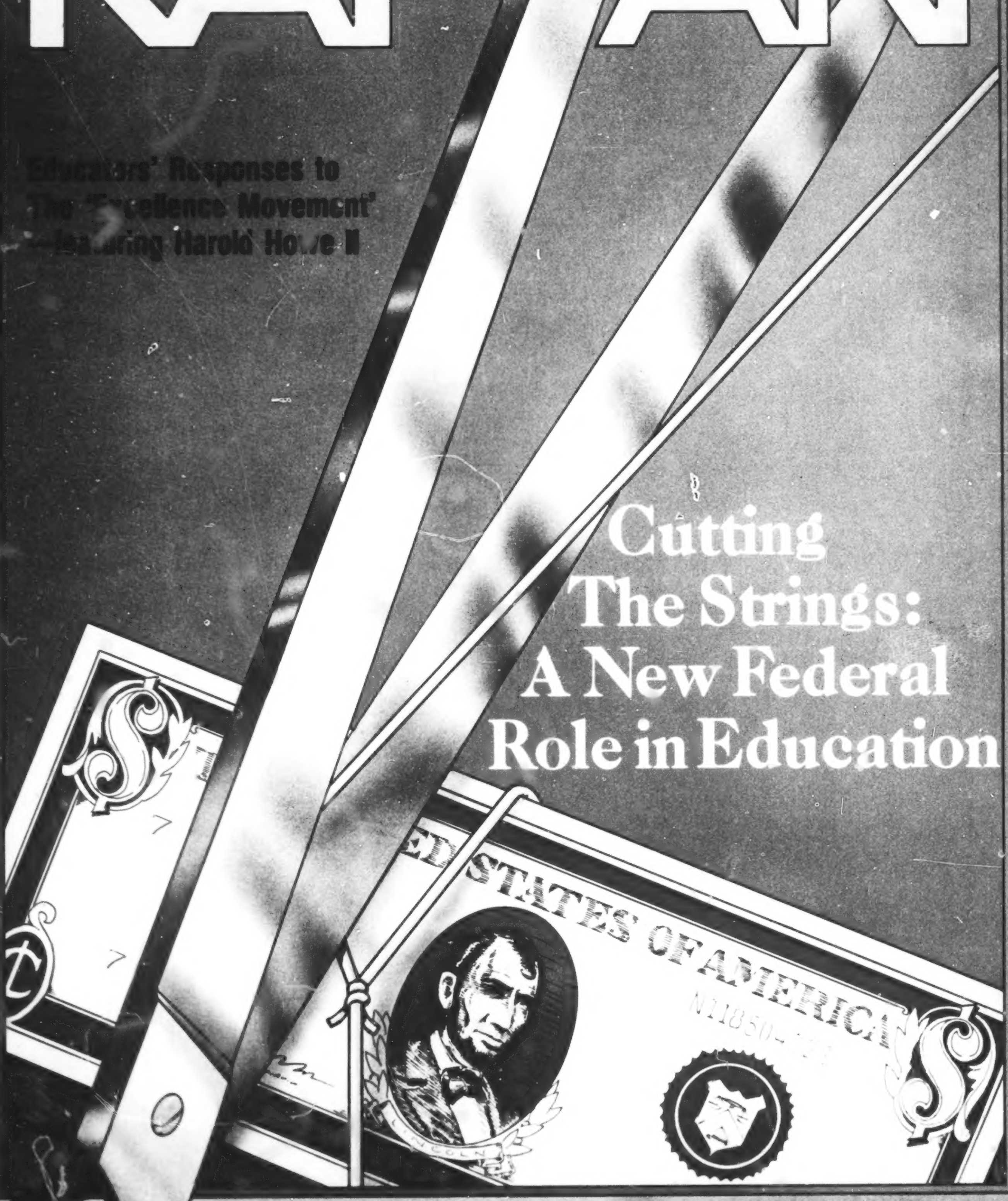
Educators' Responses to The 'Excellence Movement' —featuring Harold Howe II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Cutting The Strings: A New Federal Role in Education

November 1983 • Volume 65 • Number 3

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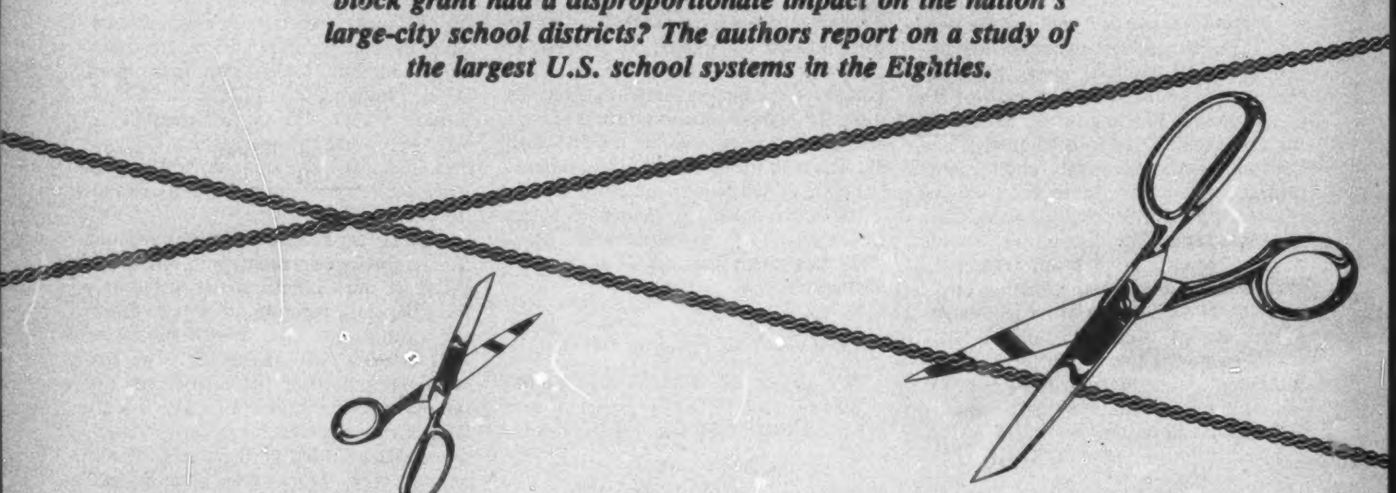
BIG DISTRICTS AND THE BLOCK GRANT: FIRST-YEAR FISCAL IMPACTS

by Richard Jung and Michael Tashjian

Has the consolidation of 28 categorical grants into one block grant had a disproportionate impact on the nation's large-city school districts? The authors report on a study of the largest U.S. school systems in the Eighties.



The plight of the largest U.S. school districts under Chapter 2 continues to be a concern.

WHAT HAVE BEEN the consequences of folding 28 federally funded categorical programs into a single block grant with a reduced total budget? Initial analyses indicate that more school districts gained funds than lost money during the first year of the block grant authorized by Chapter 2 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (ECIA).[1] However, the plight of the largest U.S. school districts under Chapter 2 continues to be a matter of concern. More than 10% of all elementary and secondary students in U.S. public schools are enrolled in fewer than 30 large districts. Most of these districts are undergoing desegregation, and all of them serve large numbers of disadvantaged children.

In considering the fiscal effects of the Chapter 2 block grant on large school districts, it is important to recognize that the $451 million budgeted for Chapter 2 during the 1982-83 school year accounted for only a small part (less than 8%) of the total Education Department (ED) funding for elementary and secondary schools. In fact, less than 1% of most districts' budgets came from the consolidated programs. Moreover, a growing body of literature suggests that anomalies characterize the start-up year of any federally funded education program. Despite the relatively modest funding level of the block grant, this reform has generated considerable

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Will consolidation facilitate the reduction of federal financial assistance to the schools?

controversy in the nation's largest school districts.

The Controversy

The concerns of individual educators and of such groups as the Council of the Great City Schools (CGCS) and the American Association of School Administrators with regard to Chapter 2 are twofold. The immediate concern is that disproportionate financial losses have occurred in large districts as a result of the consolidation. Funding for all but one of the programs folded into Chapter 2 had been awarded competitively, and the large districts, which have more grant-seeking resources, always received the lion's share of these grants. The distributive formula of the Chapter 2 block grant negates the grant-seeking advantages favoring larger districts. The CGCS, in its initial analysis of the impact of the Chapter 2 block grant, estimated that its 28 member districts would suffer an aggregate loss of $55 million, which represents an estimated 60% decline in funding.[2]

The Emergency School Aid Act (ESAA), the second largest program consolidated into Chapter 2, figures importantly in this funding decline. ESAA funds were concentrated in a relatively small number of districts – primarily large, urban districts. These districts thus seem likely to suffer the greatest net funding losses under the Chapter 2 program.

The second concern of many educators is that consolidation may facilitate the gradual reduction of federal financial assistance to the schools. The targeting of funds for categorical programs serves to galvanize congressional commitment. But the percentage of total federal funds allocated to such areas as health and law enforcement through block grants has frequently been reduced from year to year – or it has remained stable, at best. Educators are worried that education block grants may face a similar fate.[3]

With the first school year under the Chapter 2 block grant now completed, it is possible to assess the fiscal effects of this consolidation on large school districts. To carry out this assessment, we selected a sample of the nation's largest school districts through a two-part process. First, we included in our sample the 20 school districts with the largest total enrollments. Then we added to our sample those districts that are located in the 20 largest U.S. cities. The two subsets overlapped, leaving us with a final sample of 28 school districts.

A First Look at Funding Levels

We developed a three-year funding history for each of the 28 districts, covering fiscal years 1980 and 1981 under the antecedent programs and fiscal year 1982 under the block grant. The districts in our sample received between three and 10 grants under the antecedent programs. The block grant funding levels that we used for comparison consisted of the *formula amounts* awarded by the states to these districts.

We discovered that aggregate program funding for the 28 districts dropped by 33.6% between fiscal year 1981 (the last year under the antecedent programs) and fiscal year 1982 (the first year under the block grant). This decrease approximately matched the 33.8% reduction in funding that these districts experienced between fiscal year 1980 and fiscal year 1981 (while they were still under the antecedent programs). However, 10 of the 28 districts actually experienced an increase in funding under Chapter 2 – led by Boston, where Chapter 2 funds were more than double those received in fiscal year 1981 under the antecedent programs. Most of the remaining 18 districts experienced significant declines in funding, among them, Cleveland and Columbus, Ohio (with declines of 80%), Indianapolis (77%), and Milwaukee (72%). The critical question is, Why were some of these districts big winners under the block grant, while other large districts sustained substantial funding cuts?

Before examining the distinguishing characteristics of winning and losing districts, we must point out that using only the Chapter 2 formula amount to establish a district's funding level in fiscal year 1982 is somewhat misleading. The formula amounts that the districts in our sample received under Chapter 2 were supplemented in many cases by discretionary grants awarded by the states, usually out of their block grant "set-asides." Although these discretionary grants often provided significant amounts of program funding, early critics of the block grant systematically overlooked this additional source of Chapter 2 resources.

Discretionary Programs

The federal government allows each state to set aside up to 20% of its total Chapter 2 allotment for administrative and special purposes. Certain states allocated large portions of their set-asides to fund discretionary grants (alternately called "competitive," "incentive," or "mini-grants"). Overall, states varied widely in both the amounts and the proportions of the Chapter 2 set-asides that they targeted for discretionary grants to local districts. Maryland, which represents one extreme among the seven states that we investigated, spent approximately 70% of its Chapter 2 set-aside on more than a dozen mini-grant programs. At the other

"Here's your outfit for the management team in the collective bargaining sessions."

Discretionary grants have softened the losses that some districts would otherwise have suffered.

extreme, Indiana allocated less than 17% of its Chapter 2 set-aside for discretionary grants.

Table 1 shows the effect of these discretionary grants on the overall block grant funding levels in 26 of the 28 districts in our sample during fiscal year 1982.[4] Although five of the 26 districts received no discretionary grants during fiscal year 1982, the remaining 21 districts received $3.6 million from such grants, *in addition to* their Chapter 2 formula amounts. For example, Dade County, Florida, obtained $937,212 from a discretionary grant to teach foreign languages in the elementary grades. Among other qualifications for discretionary grants, districts in Florida must submit proposals and contribute one-to-one matching funds. They may, however, use part of their Chapter 2 formula funds as matching funds for this particular discretionary program. Dade County's share of the $1.2 million allocated by the state for this program meant, for that district, a 43% increase in funding over its Chapter 2 formula amount in fiscal year 1982.

Two Texas districts, Dallas and Houston, also received significant additions to their fiscal year 1982 formula grants from two of the three discretionary grant programs operated by that state with part of its Chapter 2 set-aside allotment. To recoup part of the ESAA funds lost in several large districts, Texas established a $1.7 million discretionary grant program. To qualify for this program, school districts must file applications demonstrating that proposed activities relate to former ESAA goals. Dallas drew about $406,000 from this program, and Houston secured more than $327,000. These two districts also generated smaller amounts – Dallas, $11,730; and Houston, $9,750 – for consortia for teacher training (modeled on the old Teacher Corps and Teacher Center programs) to which they belong.

Cleveland also benefited from a $150,000 Teacher Corps project, as well as from a $74,000 guidance program sponsored by the Ohio Chapter 2 program. (Unlike the other 13 states in our study, Ohio generated the $1.9 million for its four discretionary programs from the carryover funds of the antecedent programs.) Cleveland also received a total of nearly $62,000 from the other two discretionary grant programs in Ohio – one focusing on dropouts, the other on gifted and talented students.

In general, discretionary grants repre-

Table 1. The Effects of Discretionary Programs Funded out of State Chapter 2 Set-Asides on Block Grant Funding Levels in 26 Large School Districts During Fiscal Year 1982

District	Formula Amount	Discretionary Grants	Total Chapter 2 Funding	Increase over Formula Amount %
Los Angeles, Calif.	$8,061,917	$ 15,506	$8,077,423	.2
San Diego, Calif.	2,295,143	0	2,295,143	0
San Francisco, Calif.	1,051,682	0	1,051,682	0
San Jose, Calif.	139,493	3,000	142,493	2.1
Broward County, Fla.	1,192,229	32,600	1,224,829	2.7
Dade County, Fla.	2,160,694	937,212	3,097,906	43.4
Duval County, Fla.	826,376	0	826,376	0
Hillsborough County, Fla.	953,018	14,000	967,018	1.5
Chicago, Ill.	6,331,719	26,537	6,358,256	.4
Indianapolis, Ind.	710,328	22,332	732,660	3.1
Boston, Mass.	1,401,493	0	1,401,493	0
Baltimore, Md.	1,358,878	67,987	1,426,865	5.0
Baltimore County, Md.	802,606	36,690	839,296	4.6
Montgomery County, Md.	813,259	56,796	870,055	7.0
Prince Georges County, Md.	965,709	77,690	1,043,399	8.0
Detroit, Mich.	3,341,582	40,000	3,381,582	1.2
New York, N.Y.	10,998,152	566,714	11,564,866	5.1
Cleveland, O.	1,010,187	224,000*	1,234,187	22.2
Columbus, O.	696,260	61,980*	758,240	8.9
Philadelphia, Pa.	3,422,204	124,141	3,546,345	3.6
Memphis, Tenn.	1,051,279	0	1,051,279	0
Dallas, Tex.	1,094,640	416,328**	1,510,968	38.0
Houston, Tex.	1,589,425	337,153**	1,926,578	21.2
San Antonio, Tex.	823,690	52,530**	876,220	6.4
Milwaukee, Wis.	2,195,606	500,000	2,695,606	22.8
Fairfax County, Va.	622,619	8,333**	630,952	1.3
TOTAL	$95,710,187	$3,611,529	$99,321,716	6.5

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*Fiscal year 1982 Chapter 2 discretionary grant awards to local education agencies and intermediary units in Ohio were funded by fiscal year 1981 carryover funds from antecedent programs.

**Part of these funds, generated by the school districts for a consortium, were available for use by any unit in the consortium.

Twelve of the 28 districts experienced a net increase in funding under Chapter 2.

sent attempts by the states to use some of their Chapter 2 resources to encourage local school districts to continue to attend to certain categorical objectives once part of the antecedent programs. The very existence of these discretionary grants tends to support the notion that the block grant transfers more responsibility and authority from the federal government to the states. Moreover, the funds from these discretionary grants have softened the losses that some large-city districts would otherwise have suffered because of the more distributive nature of the Chapter 2 awards.

A Second Look at Funding Levels

Having accounted for the additional Chapter 2 funds provided by the state discretionary grants, we are now able to compare more accurately the funding levels for the districts in our sample from fiscal year 1980 through fiscal year 1982. Table 2 shows that the overall decrease in funding between fiscal year 1981 and fiscal year 1982 for these 28 districts was not 33.6%, but only 29.7%.

Taking into account the state discretionary programs supported through Chapter 2 funds, 12 of the 28 districts experienced a *net increase* in funding under Chapter 2. Nonetheless, 16 of the 28 districts in our sample experienced significant cuts in funding under the block grant – ranging from a loss of 6.3% under the fiscal year 1981 allotment for antecedent programs in Chicago to a 78.6% decline in Columbus, Ohio.

It is worth noting that large districts generally experienced *smaller* cuts under the block grants than they experienced during the year prior to consolidation. In effect, large districts were suffering from the erosion of political support for the antecedent programs *before* the programs were folded into the block grant. Contrary to popular belief, the consolidation may actually have protected the large districts from even greater cuts in funding.

Table 2. Fiscal Effects of the Chapter 2 Block Grant on 28 Large Districts

District	FY 1980 Funding Level for Antecedent Programs	FY 1981 Funding Level for Antecedent Programs	FY 1982 Funding Level for Chapter 2††	Difference, FY 1980 to FY 1981 $	Difference, FY 1980 to FY 1981 %	Difference, FY 1981 to FY 1982 $	Difference, FY 1981 to FY 1982 %	Difference, FY 1980 to FY 1982 $	Difference, FY 1980 to FY 1982 %
Baltimore	$ 1,705,186	$ 1,176,254	$ 1,426,865	− 528,932	−31.0	+ 250,611	+ 21.3	− 278,321	− 16.
Baltimore Co.	550,153	627,978	839,296	+ 77,825	+14.1	+ 211,318	+ 33.7	+ 289,143	+52.
Boston	3,332,080	659,003	1,401,493*	− 2,673,077	−80.2	+ 742,490	+112.7	− 1,930,587	−57.9
Broward Co.	2,728,367	1,882,336	1,224,829	− 846,031	−31.0	− 657,507	− 34.9	− 1,503,538	−55.1
Chicago	3,449,658	6,784,273	6,358,256*	+ 3,334,615	+96.6	− 426,017	− 6.3	+ 2,908,598	+84.3
Cleveland	15,499,068	4,968,874	1,234,187	−10,530,194	−68.0	− 3,734,687	−75.2	−14,264,881	−92.0
Columbus	5,732,336	3,537,746	758,240	− 2,194,590	−38.3	− 2,779,506	− 78.6	− 4,974,096	−86.8
Dade Co.	2,820,046	2,624,959	3,097,906	− 884,892	−31.4	+ 472,947	+ 18.0	+ 277,860	+ 9.9
Dallas	3,975,387	2,654,230	1,510,968	− 1,321,157	−33.2	− 1,143,262	− 43.1	− 2,464,419	−62.0
Detroit	7,304,073	4,530,600	3,381,582	− 2,773,473	−38.0	− 1,149,018	−25.4	− 3,922,491	−53.7
Duval Co.	1,312,159	781,170	826,376	− 530,989	−40.5	+ 45,206	+ 5.8	− 485,783	−37.0
Fairfax Co.	395,056	510,019	630,952	+ 114,963	+29.1	+ 120,933	+ 23.7	+ 235,896	+59.7
Hawaii	4,007,518	1,859,155	2,187,360†	− 2,148,363	−53.6	+ 328,205	+ 17.7	− 1,820,158	−45.4
Hillsborough Co.	1,161,350	865,098	967,018	− 296,252	−25.5	+ 101,920	+ 11.8	− 194,332	−16.7
Houston	2,779,482	2,149,607	1,926,578	− 629,875	−22.7	− 223,029	− 10.4	− 852,904	−30.7
Indianapolis	2,045,240	3,028,517	732,660	+ 983,277	+48.1	− 2,295,857	− 75.8	− 1,312,580	−64.2
Los Angeles	19,817,280	10,458,382	8,077,423	− 9,358,898	−47.2	− 2,380,959	− 22.8	−11,739,857	−59.2
Memphis	1,249,441	1,043,532	1,051,279**	− 205,909	−16.5	+ 7,747	+ 0.7	− 198,162	−15.9
Milwaukee	8,527,592	7,835,647	2,695,606*	− 691,945	− 8.1	− 5,140,041	− 65.6	− 5,831,986	−68.4
Montgomery Co.	1,185,515	835,105	870,065	− 350,410	−29.6	+ 34,960	+ 4.2	− 315,450	−26.6
New York	21,165,781	14,525,752	11,554,866*	− 6,640,029	−31.4	− 2,970,886	− 20.5	− 9,610,915	−45.4
Philadelphia	8,781,436	5,609,099	3,546,345*	− 3,172,337	−36.1	− 2,062,754	− 36.8	− 5,235,091	−59.6
Prince Georges Co.	1,399,733	571,588	1,043,389	− 828,145	−59.2	+ 471,841	+ 45.2	− 356,344	−25.5
San Antonio	760,272	622,759	676,220	− 137,513	−18.1	+ 53,461	+ 8.6	− 84,052	−11.1
San Diego	6,085,316	3,826,801	2,295,143	− 2,258,515	−37.1	− 1,531,658	− 40.1	− 3,790,173	−62.3
San Francisco	2,340,442	1,610,144	1,051,682	− 730,298	−31.2	− 558,462	− 34.7	− 1,288,760	−55.1
San Jose	495,056	390,892	142,493	− 104,164	−21.0	− 248,399	− 63.5	− 352,563	−71.2
Washington, D.C.	6,445,885	4,622,630	2,187,360†	− 1,823,255	−28.3	− 2,435,270	− 52.7	− 4,258,525	−66.1
TOTAL	$137,040,887	$90,594,100	$63,697,437	−46,446,787	−33.8	−26,896,663	− 29.7	−73,343,450	−53.5

Sources: Fiscal year 1980 and fiscal year 1981 funding levels for antecedent federally administered programs were obtained from the Assistance Management Procurement Service (AMPS) file; for state-administered programs, from General Education Provisions Act (GEPA) files for fiscal year 1980 and from interviews with state officials, from state documents, or from tables contained in *Analysis of the Effects of the FY 82 and FY 83 Reagan Budget Proposals on Urban Schools* (Washington, D.C.: Council of the Great City Schools, February 1982). Fiscal year 1982 funding levels for Chapter 2, ECIA block grant, were obtained from interviews with state Chapter 2 officials in April 1982, unless otherwise indicated.

*Source: Chapter 2 Office, U.S. Education Department.

**Source: Tables in NIE/PES case studies on Chapter 2 implementation.

†Source: U.S. Education Department table, "Education Consolidation and Improvement Act, Chapter 2: FY 1982 Appropriation — Continuing Resolution (Final)." Hawaii and the District of Columbia are anomalies because of their status as large local education agencies *and* as state-level agencies; however, Title V programs are not included in the antecedent program totals for these two districts in order to have comparable data for each of the 28 sample districts.

††Chapter 2 amounts include both formula and discretionary grants received by these districts in fiscal year 1982.

Winners and Losers

Of all the district characteristics that we examined, by far the most important predictors of the net funding change under Chapter 2 were 1) whether a district was a former ESAA recipient and 2) the amount of ESAA funds that a district received. We found no relationships between funding patterns under the block grant and a district's regional location, its poverty level, or its local tax structure. The percentage of a district's budget derived from federal sources proved unrelated, as did the consideration given to "high-cost" students in a state's Chapter 2 distribution formula. Nor did we find any relationship between funding patterns under the block grant and a state's future fiscal capacity or the percentage of its Chapter 2 set-aside.

Table 3 divides the sample districts into winners and losers under the block grant (fiscal year 1981 to fiscal year 1982) and ranks the districts in each of these categories according to the magnitude (in percentages) of their increases or decreases under Chapter 2. As Table 3 shows, the districts with the largest ESAA grants prior to consolidation generally suffered the heaviest cuts under the block grant. Each of the four districts that experienced the greatest percentage decline in funding under the block grant had received multi-million-dollar ESAA grants in fiscal year 1981. On the other hand, none of the 12 winners had received ESAA grants in excess of $600,000 during fiscal year 1981. The average change in funding under the block grant in the four districts that had not received ESAA grants was a 12% increase; by contrast, the 24 districts that had received ESAA funds in fiscal year 1981 experienced an average funding loss under the block grant of 31%. Moreover, of the 11 districts that lost more than $1 million under the block grant, 10 had received multi-million-dollar ESAA grants in fiscal year 1981.

Correspondingly, a district's status with regard to desegregation was also strongly related to the magnitude of funding losses or gains. Those districts in our sample that were operating under court-ordered desegregation plans — the same districts that had usually received sizable ESAA grants — took larger proportional cuts under the block grant than did districts that were operating under voluntary desegregation plans or that had no desegregation plan. Finally, county districts fared better under the block grant than did city districts. This is largely due to the fact that the county districts had received little or no ESAA funding.

Table 3. Biggest 'Winners' and 'Losers' and Selected District Characteristics, Fiscal Year 1981 to Fiscal Year 1982

District	Increase or Decrease %	ESAA Grant, Fiscal Year 1981 $	Desegregation Plan
		Winners	
Boston	+112.7	63,322	Court-ordered
Prince Georges Co.	+45.2	4,565	Voluntary
Baltimore Co.	+33.7	0	None
Fairfax Co.	+23.7	0	None
Baltimore	+21.3	0	None
Dade Co.	+18.0	593,560	Voluntary
Hawaii	+17.7	444,170	Voluntary
Hillsborough Co.	+11.8	511,020	Court-ordered
San Antonio	+ 8.6	215,986	Voluntary
Duval Co.	+ 5.8	314,287	Court-ordered
Montgomery Co.	+ 4.2	319,350	Voluntary
Memphis	+ 0.7	389,511	Voluntary
		Losers	
Columbus	−78.6	3,171,562	Court-ordered
Indianapolis	−75.8	1,985,275	Court-ordered
Cleveland	−75.2	4,160,674	Court-ordered
Milwaukee	−65.6	6,886,250	Court-ordered
San Jose	−63.5	0	Court-ordered
Washington, D.C.	−52.7	573,642	Voluntary
Dallas	−43.1	1,770,012	Court-ordered
San Diego	−40.1	2,989,351	Court-ordered
Philadelphia	−36.8	2,909,565	Court-ordered
Broward Co.	−34.9	1,405,514	Voluntary
San Francisco	−34.7	882,339	Voluntary
Detroit	−25.4	3,388,321	Court-ordered
Los Angeles	−22.8	8,958,231	Court-ordered
New York	−20.5	6,184,208	Court-ordered
Houston	−10.4	1,414,730	Court-ordered
Chicago	− 6.3	1,813,025	Voluntary

The amount of previous ESAA funding was the major factor determining gain or loss.

PERHAPS THE major finding of this study is that, when discretionary grants funded through Chapter 2 are taken into account, the districts with the largest enrollments and those in the largest cities experienced *smaller* cuts under the block grant than they had experienced in the year prior to consolidation. Nonetheless, certain of the nation's large urban school districts suffered significant cuts in funding under the Chapter 2 consolidation.

It is clear that the amount of previous ESAA funding was the major factor determining whether a large district gained or lost funds during the first year under the block grant. However, larger policy questions remain. Is the "emergency" declared by the passage of the ESAA now over? What are the policy implications of the decision by many districts not to use Chapter 2 funds to continue desegregation activities? Will the education block grant face, like earlier block grants in other areas, a continuing decline in congressional support? The answers to these questions must be considered in light of the major policy objectives of the block grant — to increase state and local discretion and to reduce the burden of administrative paperwork. □

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1. *The Impact of Chapter 2 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act on Local Education Agencies* (Arlington, Va.: American Association of School Administrators, 1983), p. 3.
2. *Analysis of the Effects of the FY 82 and FY 83 Reagan Budget Proposals on Urban Schools* (Washington, D.C.: Council of the Great City Schools, February 1982).
3. Anne H. Hastings, "The Block Grant Record: Lessons from Experience," *Phi Delta Kappan*, January 1982, pp. 330-32.
4. Two of the districts in our sample, Hawaii and Washington, D.C., are, in effect, both local education agencies and state education agencies and thus do not suballocate state set-aside funds under discretionary grant competitions.

NOTE

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Financing Educational Excellence

by Allan Odden

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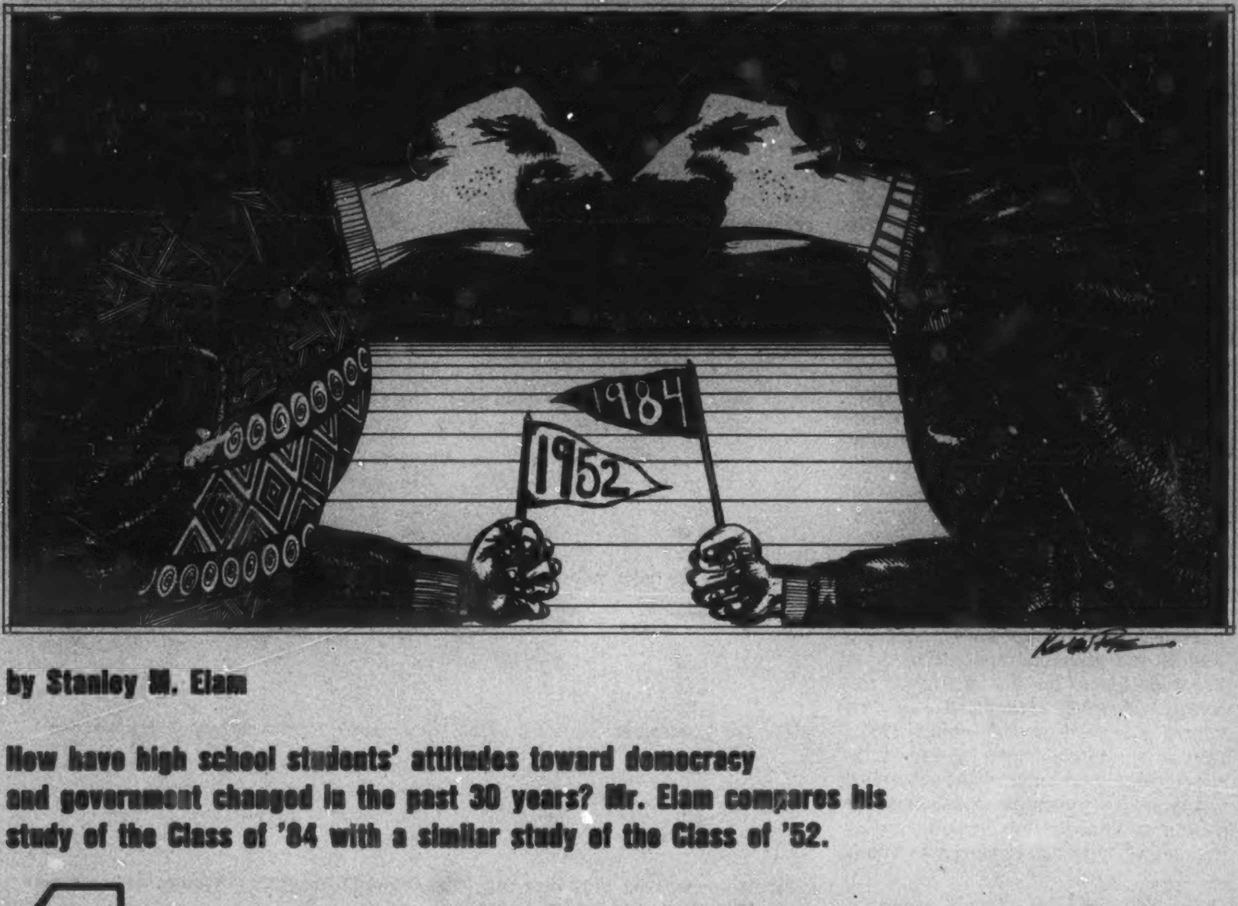
ANTI-DEMOCRATIC ATTITUDES OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS IN THE ORWELL YEAR

Illustration by Kevin Pope



by Stanley M. Elam

How have high school students' attitudes toward democracy and government changed in the past 30 years? Mr. Elam compares his study of the Class of '84 with a similar study of the Class of '52.

A 1952 ISSUE of *Look* magazine placed this provocative question before its 3.3 million readers: "Are U.S. Teenagers Rejecting Freedom?" Unsurprisingly (else why pose the question?), the answer was: yes, quite a few of them are. Said the editors of *Look*, "If American high school boys and girls could go to the polls tomorrow, a shocking number of them might very well vote to throw away some of the most important freedoms guaranteed to all citizens of the United States.

"Even more amazing, these teenagers seem capable of falling for the hysterical pitch of a home-grown Hitler or Stalin. They favor such fascist concepts as the strong dominating the weak, strong-arm police powers, and sterilization of certain groups of people."[1]

Standard viewing-with-alarm by the sensation-mongering press? Not quite. *Look* was only reporting the findings of a group of respected social scientists headed by H. H. Remmers, whose works were regular fare for students of educational sociology back in the Fifties. The Purdue Youth Opinion Poll directed by Remmers operated from the mid-Forties until well into the Sixties, polling thousands of high school and college students across the U.S. on a variety of topics.

Those who spent considerable sums of money to keep the poll going saw this enterprise as a scientific means of evaluating the effect of teachers and parents – in fact, of all responsible adults – on "the thinking of tomorrow's leaders." And Remmers and his colleagues registered their misgivings about the success of these responsible adults in a series of publications.

For example, *The American Teenager* (Bobbs-Merrill, 1957) announced that the typical high school student of that day en-

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dorsed censorship of books, newspapers, magazines, and other media, as "protective of the public against improper ideas." Many students also thought, the polls revealed, that "behavior can and should be scrutinized by police, using wiretapping as a legitimate source of evidence." George Orwell's vision of mass television surveillance by Big Brother in 1984 began to look realistic.

In 1963 Remmers and a dozen coauthors published a final volume, forthrightly titled *Anti-Democratic Attitudes in American Schools* (Northwestern University Press). It summarized nearly two decades of measuring youth opinion and found few grounds for optimism about young people's understanding of and appreciation for the American heritage of political and personal freedom. For example, abridgment of freedom of the press was less abhorrent to high school youngsters in 1960 than in 1951. In 1960 an actual majority (51%) of the youngsters polled disagreed with the statement that "newspapers and magazines should be allowed to print anything they want except military secrets." That finding represents an increase of 10% over 1951. Whatever one may think of the question (I wonder how today's Supreme Court justices would respond to so strict a construction of press freedom guarantees in the First Amendment), this change in the attitudes of youthful Americans over a 10-year period raises some interesting issues.

These issues are so interesting, in fact, that I decided to attempt a modest replication of the research reported in *Does Youth Believe in the Bill of Rights? Report of Poll No. 30 of the Purdue Opinion Panel*, published in November 1951.[2] Time and resources limited the effort rather severely.* (An enterprising researcher or research organization could make an enormous contribution to our understanding of attitudinal changes in young people by conducting a full-scale replication.) Nevertheless, as the year 1984 begins, it seems worthwhile to report some findings of my poll, taken in early October 1983 among high school seniors (Class of 1984) in 53 school districts, located in 26 different states and representing all regions of the U.S. In all, I received 425 usable responses to an instrument that sought opinions on 62 statements related to the Bill of Rights and to three forms of government. Another 13 questions gathered demographic information, and a final nine items tested knowledge of history and government that high school students might reasonably be expected to have.

The findings of this research are compared with the findings of the 1951 Purdue Opinion Poll (of members of the Class of 1952) in the tables that follow. The temptation to explain and interpret these bare numbers is almost irresistible. However, I will call attention only to some of the more striking differences and offer a few generalizations amply supported by the data.

THE 15 STATEMENTS in Table 1 paraphrase basic civil liberties and freedoms guaranteed by the first 10 amendments to the U.S. Constitution. Certain freedoms important in Revolutionary times are omitted because they are no longer of particular significance. The Purdue Opinion Panel concluded, on the basis of the 1951 returns, that one of two things was true: either young people did not believe wholeheartedly in the Bill of Rights, or they had not thought through the implications and ramifications of the 15 state-

Table 1. Responses of the Class of 1952 and the Class of 1984 to Statements Keyed to the Bill of Rights

15. Newspapers and magazines should be allowed to print anything they want except military secrets.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	46	43	11	0
1984	37	44	16	2

19. Religious belief and worship should not be restricted by laws.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	82	13	5	0
1984	72	16	11	1

23. The government should prohibit some people from making public speeches.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	32	57	11	0
1984	20	69	8	2

26. In some cases, the police should be allowed to search a person or his home even though they do not have a warrant.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	20	76	4	0
1984	33	60	6	1

28. Some criminals are so bad that they shouldn't be allowed to have a lawyer.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	12	84	4	0
1984	21	70	6	3

31. Some religious groups should not be allowed the same freedom as others.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	7	90	3	0
1984	16.5	72	11	.5

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*Using a list of more than 16,000 U.S. public school districts, I drew a stratified random sample of 145, each of which includes one or more high schools. Superintendents of schools in this sample were invited to cooperate in the research reported here; 68 of them accepted. By our October 7 deadline, 425 usable responses to an 84-item research instrument had been received from high school seniors in 53 of these districts. This number compares with the 634 seniors who responded to the 1951 Purdue Youth Opinion Poll No. 30, on which the 1983 questionnaire was based. We gave careful instructions for randomization in the selection of respondents. We cannot be certain, of course, that these instructions were followed. Because of time and resource constraints, we were unable to correct a minor geographic imbalance (the South was somewhat overrepresented and the Mountain/Pacific region somewhat underrepresented), and we did not employ the wide range of statistical tests applied by the Purdue Opinion Panel in 1951. However, we are confident that the 1983 response is roughly comparable to that obtained in 1951. Our data will be made available to scholars who wish to probe the responses further than we have done for purposes of this report. – *Larry Barber*

Table 1 (continued)

33. If a person is accused of a crime, he should always have the right to know who is accusing him.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	84	10	6	0
1984	72	19	8	1

35. Certain groups should not be allowed to hold public meetings, even though they gather peaceably and only make speeches.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	24	64	12	0
1984	15	75	10	0

38. Foreigners in this country should always be allowed the same basic freedoms that citizens have.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	49	38	13	0
1984	53	28	18	1

40. Local police may sometimes be right in holding persons in jail without telling them of any formal charge against them.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	18	72	8	0
1984	9	82	8	1

42. In some criminal cases, a trial by jury is an unnecessary expense and shouldn't be given.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	10	79	11	0
1984	27	62	10	1

45. In some cases, the government should have the right to take over a person's land without bothering to go to court.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	8	90	2	0
1984	6	86	5	2

47. The police or FBI may sometimes be right in giving a man the "third degree" to make him talk.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	60	26	14	0
1984	54	28	17	1

50. Persons who refuse to testify against themselves (that is, to give evidence that would show that they are guilty of criminal acts) should either be made to talk or be severely punished.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	29	55	16	0
1984	19	60	19	1

53. Some of the petitions which have been circulated should not be allowed by the government.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	32	43	25	0
1984	20	50	29	1

Most of these uncertain youths will have the privilege of voting in a Presidential election during the same year in which they graduate from high school.

ments before responding to them. In either case, the panel considered the situation "tragic," since it meant that youths would "readily respond to . . . verbal persuasion" and could be "easily swayed or led by the demagogue." This interpretation applied equally well, the report continued, to questions in the 1951 poll having to do with communism and fascism (Tables 2 and 3).

To the credit of the Class of 1984, on several of the 15 statements in Table 1 the members who were polled agreed more closely with the Founding Fathers than had the Class of 1952. I find it reassuring that a higher proportion of today's young people believes in such basics as freedom of public speech and assembly, despite the fact that more than 90% of today's 17- and 18-year-olds graduate from high school, whereas less than 50% did so in 1950. (The Purdue researchers discovered that dropout-prone youths were less "democratic" and more "authoritarian.") Certainly the majority of youths now concur with Thomas Jefferson that "error or opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it."

But it is more than a little disconcerting to find a larger percentage of the Class of 1984 than of the Class of 1952 willing to allow a police search without a warrant, to deny legal counsel to criminals, and to accept restrictions on religious freedom. It is also discouraging to see so many youngsters uncertain of so many traditional freedoms. More responses fall into the uncertain category today than in the autumn of 1951. Why? Modern youngsters are three years closer to voting age than the Class of 1952 was. Most of these uncertain youths will have the privilege of voting in a Presidential election during the same year in which they graduate from high school. They ought to be more vitally aware of their heritage of freedom than they are.

Eight of the poll items were statements paraphrased from the *Communist Manifesto*, written by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels. Table 2 makes it obvious that a sizable number of youths accept at least some Marxist ideology today, just as they did in 1951. In fact, differences in responses from the two generations are quite small; sampling error could account for most of them.

Marxist ideology was so sensitive a topic in the fall of 1951 (the first of the virulent McCarthy years) that a number of educators refused to administer the Purdue questionnaire. I have no way of knowing how many of the school superintendents invited to cooperate in my replication last fall declined to do so because of the sensitive nature of these questions, but only one-third *did* agree to cooperate.

Table 2. Responses of the Class of 1952 and the Class of 1984 To Questions Revealing Latent Acceptance of Marxist Ideology

18. The government should have control of the railroads and airlines.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	19	70	11	0
1984	13	63	23	1

22. The government should abolish all rights of inheritance to insure equality of opportunity.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	6	78	16	0
1984	10	73	14	3

28. Most basic industries, such as mining and manufacturing, should be owned by the government.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	14	75	11	0
1984	10	74	12	4

33. Our modern society is moved chiefly by the desire for profit.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	69	13	18	0
1984	79	8	11	1

39. Most history is the story of the fight for power between different classes: master and slave, landowner and peasant, management and labor.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	61	27	12	0
1984	63	21	14	1

43. The price of goods we buy should depend only on the cost of making them.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	36	54	10	0
1984	45	43	11	2

46. All banks and all credit should be run by the government.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	24	67	9	0
1984	17	60	17	6

52. Large estates, on which the land lies idle and unused, should be divided up among the poor for farming.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	49	36	15	0
1984	41	36	22	1

Some caveats are in order as readers consider Table 2. First, note that most of the statements refer to idealistic, theoretical communism — not to the reality we know today in those nations we call "communist." Certainly the outcomes would have been different had the questionnaires focused, for example, on the restrictions of personal freedoms that characterize life in the Soviet Union. It is also important to note, as the Purdue Opinion Panel did, that some of the communistic statements are not incompatible with the tenets of democracy; in fact, some of the principles propounded by Marx, such as equality of opportunity, are *basic* principles of democracy as well. The important point, said the Purdue social scientists, is that, when an individual's beliefs coincide with a few of the statements of communism, this fact does not make that individual a Communist.

Closely related to communism in the contemporary world is the question of fascism. Modern communist states tend to depend on a fascistic hierarchy of power — a strongly totalitarian government. Thus the topic of fascism is just as central today as it was in the fall of 1951. And, as the Purdue social scientists observed in 1951, one of the prime threats to democracy was then — and still remains — the prevalence of fascistic tendencies. The eight questions shown in Table 3 were designed to measure such tendencies. In 1951 from 22% to 75% of the Class of 1952 revealed fascistic ideology. In the Class of 1984 the range is from 10% to 71%, but it is heartening to note that on six of the eight indicators the new generation is less "fascistic." Far fewer youngsters today believe that the masses don't know what is good for them, for example. Almost no one now believes that what best serves the interest of government is generally right. (Could this be a positive legacy of Watergate? It was no accident that both Jimmy Carter and Ronald Reagan won by campaigning against big government in Washington.) Finally, no one should be surprised that agreement on "more discipline for children" is just as popular today as in 1951. Children *always* need more discipline, don't they?

THE PURDUE Opinion Panel included a 10-item test in Poll No. 30. It revealed a positive correlation between high knowledge scores and what the panel considered to be "correct" responses to the opinion questions. I attempted to construct a knowledge test for my 1983 survey that would be comparable to the one used in 1951. Table 4 presents the findings from the two surveys. The 1951 conclusion still applies today: the better their scores on the knowledge test, the more likely are students to hold pro-democratic and anti-fascist or anti-communist beliefs.

However, a bizarre anomaly surfaced in the Poll No. 30 report. An analysis of the responses of the Class of 1952 revealed that the study of civics or of U.S. government had little or no constructive effect on attitudes toward the freedoms guaranteed by the Bill of Rights. In fact, when differences did occur, those seniors who had studied civics were *less* in agreement with the Bill of Rights than their counterparts who had not. One fairly consistent difference between these two groups was that those who had taken civics were less uncertain about their opinions; their attitudes were apparently more "crystallized."

Although the Class of 1984 seems to understand and appreciate constitutionally guaranteed freedoms better than did the Class of 1952, it still has a long way to go.

Table 3. Responses of the Class of 1952 and the Class of 1984 to Questions Related to Fascist Ideology

17. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues that children should learn.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	73	18	9	0
1984	62	23	14	1

21. Whatever serves the interests of government best is generally right.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	20	56	24	0
1984	10	73	17	1

27. Most children these days need more discipline.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	69	18	13	0
1984	71	15	14	1

32. Most criminals and moral misfits should be prevented from having children.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	44	35	21	0
1984	12	69	16	3

37. What this country needs most is a few strong, courageous, tireless leaders in whom people can put their faith.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	59	29	12	0
1984	64	22	13	1

38. A large mass of the people are not capable of determining what is and what is not good for them.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	51	33	16	0
1984	33	46	20	1

41. There will always be strong groups and weak groups and it is best that the strong continue to dominate the weak.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Responce %
1952	19	66	15	0
1984	14	64	21	1

46. The right of some working groups to call a strike should be abolished as it is a threat to democracy and not in the general interest of society.

Class	Agree %	Disagree %	Uncertain %	No Response %
1952	37	47	16	0
1984	25	53	21	1

The Purdue panel offered some tentative explanations for these findings, which they termed "curious." It may well be, they said, that courses in civics or government concentrate more on the *mechanics* of government than on the *values* of democracy. "If this is the case," they added, "it seems that a need exists for greater emphasis upon the basic values of freedom upon which democracy rests." The panel also proposed another possible explanation: the attitudes of students are fairly well developed by the time they reach grade 12, and a short course in civics cannot change these attitudes significantly. Whatever the correct explanation, the panel noted that these findings raise "questions that imply some soul searching for the schools."

Yes indeed; and the soul searching must continue. For, although today's students seem to understand and appreciate constitutionally guaranteed freedoms somewhat better than did the Class of 1952, they still have a long way to go. Perhaps a course in George Orwell would be preferable to a course in civics.

Richard Rovere says, in the introduction to *The Orwell Reader* (Harcourt Brace, 1956), that Orwell was central to his time — which is our time, from the late Twenties to the Fifties and on into the plausible terrors of *Nineteen Eighty-Four.* A socialist and critic of socialism all his life, Orwell was the conscience of his age, and the world has a sense of Orwell as prophet. *Nineteen Eighty-Four* appeared in 1949, a year before he died. In it he uncovered the living roots of totalitarianism in contemporary thought and speech, in the slackening of our ties with the usable past, in our cravenness before the gods of security, in the deadening impulses of our mass entertainment. As Rovere said, "If we and our offspring never have to endure 1984, we and they will have Orwell partly to thank."

Are George Orwell's *Animal Farm* and *Nineteen Eighty-Four* part of your school's curriculum? In these books Orwell eloquently reminds the 20th-century democracies of a Jeffersonian truism: the price of liberty is eternal vigilance. ☐

Table 4. Responses of Students in 1951 and in 1983 on Comparable Tests of Knowledge*

The 1951 Test	Response %†	The 1983 Test	Response %†
1. Bernard Baruch is:		1. Henry Kissinger is:	
a. a member of the U.S. Cabinet	21	a. a member of the U.S. Cabinet	25
b. a member of Congress	19	b. a member of Congress	15
c. a Supreme Court judge	19	c. a Supreme Court judge	1
**d. none of these	41	**d. none of these	57
2. The present Secretary of Defense is:		2. The present Secretary of Defense is:	
a. George Marshall	40	a. General Haig	18
b. General Eisenhower	7	**b. Caspar Weinberger	71
**c. Robert Lovett	25	c. Terrel Bell	3
d. Dean Acheson	28	d. John Glenn	2
3. The U.S. has signed a peace treaty with Germany.		3. In the war between Great Britain and Argentina over the Falkland Islands, the U.S. government remained strictly neutral.	
a. True	57	a. True	52
**b. False	43	**b. False	45
4. The Constitution of the U.S. provided for the President's Cabinet.		4. The Constitution of the U.S. provides for the President's Cabinet.	
a. True	64	a. True	48
**b. False	36	**b. False	49
5. Women gained the right to vote in about the year:		5. Women gained the right to vote in about the year:	
a. 1791	6	a. 1791	1
b. 1860	26	b. 1860	1
c. 1902	30	c. 1902	1
**d. 1920	38	**d. 1920	91
6. All 13 of the original states had ratified the Constitution by the year 1787.		6. All 13 of the original states had ratified the Constitution by the year 1787.	
a. True	55	a. True	51
**b. False	45	**b. False	46
7. Congress has recently passed a universal military training law.		7. The U.S. Congress has passed a law requiring young men to register for the military draft at age 18.	
a. True	62	**a. True	91
**b. False	38	b. False	8
8. Communism was relatively unheard of before the year 1930 or so.		8. Communism was relatively unheard of before the year 1930 or so.	
a. True	49	a. True	32
**b. False	51	**b. False	64
9. The Constitution of the U.S. drew many ideas about the rights of man from early English writers.		9. The Constitution of the U.S. drew many ideas about the rights of man from early English writers.	
**a. True	66	**a. True	75
b. False	34	b. False	20

*Includes responses of all 3,500 respondents (grades 9 through 12) for 1951 because senior responses alone were not available. Responses for 1983 are from seniors only.

**Marks the correct response.

†Some percentages do not add to 100, because some students failed to respond.

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1. *Look*, 26 January 1952, pp. 29-31.

2. The 32-page report is still available from the Center for Instructional Services, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907, for $3 per copy. (Add $2 if payment is not enclosed.)

The Growing Imbalance Between Education And Work

by Russell W. Rumberger

Although some studies of education recommend a significant upgrading of the education of the American workforce, Mr. Rumberger suggests that we already have an abundance of highly skilled workers. Our challenge is to use effectively the human resources that we have.

EDUCATION PLAYS an important economic role in U.S. society. Advanced schooling gives individuals access to the most desirable and best-paid jobs; meanwhile, the nation benefits from the contribution that this highly educated workforce makes to the growth of the U.S. economy. Most people believe that the economic benefits of education have no bounds. The many recent reports on the U.S. system of education, including that of the National Commission on Excellence in Education, all urge increased investment in education as a way of improving society and achieving renewed economic prosperity. In fact, these reports suggest that a serious gap exists between the future needs of our high-tech economy and the education that U.S. schools and colleges are now providing for the American workforce of the future.

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Yet considerable evidence suggests that the American workforce has already attained an educational level that exceeds the educational requirements of many jobs in the economy. This does not imply that U.S. workers have become too highly educated in general; rather, it means that the demands for highly educated labor in the U.S. economy have not kept pace with the rising educational level of American workers. This growing imbalance between education and work not only affects workers who are forced to accept jobs for which they are overqualified, but it may also be injurious to the performance of the economy.[1]

Three terms have commonly been used to describe this phenomenon: overeducation, underutilization, and underemployment.[2] Each term suggests a discrepancy between the economic position of workers and their level of schooling. The type of discrepancy varies, however. Several observers have traced chronological changes in the economic position of educated workers. For example, some economists have observed a decline in the relative earnings of college graduates between the 1960s and the 1970s.[3] Others have noted an increase over time in the educational levels of workers in specific occupations.[4] Although these trends suggest that the economic position of educated workers, particularly college graduates, has deteriorated over time, they do not reveal the severity of the mismatch that currently exists between workers' educational levels and the requirements of their jobs.

This mismatch can be seen most clearly by comparing the educational levels of workers with the skills required by their jobs. Education develops a variety of cognitive and affective skills that are valuable in the workplace, and each job requires certain types and levels of these skills. Discrepancies between the skills that workers bring to their jobs and the

skills that these jobs require provide a direct measure of this mismatch.

Of course, such discrepancies will always exist in certain sectors of the labor market. During the 1960s and 1970s there were reported shortages and then surpluses of teachers and aeronautical engineers, for example. These short-term imbalances have always occurred and probably always will. They generally involve specific kinds of skills and relatively few people. Since such imbalances are normally corrected by market adjustments, they cause little concern.

A more widespread and serious problem exists today, however, as increasing numbers of U.S. workers gain higher levels of education than their jobs require. Perhaps as many as 25% to 50% of recent college graduates are overqualified for their current jobs. Moreover, this situation has become increasingly common over the last two decades, and the problem is likely to become even more widespread in the decades ahead. However, the most compelling reason for drawing attention to this situation is not its extent, but its grave consequences – not only for those workers whose educational skills are underutilized in the workplace, but also for the economic performance of individual firms and of the U.S. economy in general.

EDUCATION EXPANDED at a phenomenal rate in the U.S. over the last 20 years, particularly at the postsecondary level. Enrollments in higher education increased by more than 300% between 1960 and 1980. This growth was due to the so-called baby boom after World War II (an age group from which most college students were drawn in the late Sixties and early Seventies) and to an increase in college enrollment rates among all age groups, especially older Americans. As a result, the number of college graduates in the labor market increased threefold between 1960 and 1980.[5] By 1980 almost 20% of all U.S. workers and more than 25% of all young workers had completed four years of college or more (see Table 1).

The growth in the number of highly skilled jobs did not keep pace. The proportion of professional and managerial jobs in the economy remained at about 25% between 1960 and 1970 (Table 1), despite the large increase during this period in teaching jobs and in professional jobs with the government. Professional employment increased somewhat during the 1970s, even though the growth in government employment slowed considerably. During the interval between 1960 and 1980, fewer than one-third of all new jobs in the U.S. economy were in professional and managerial areas. Almost 50% of the new jobs were in clerical and service occupations, where a four-year college education is not a requirement for satisfactory work performance.[6] A college education may, in fact, be detrimental to workers in these areas.

Between 1960 and 1980 the number of college graduates in the U.S. labor market increased three times as fast as the number of high-level jobs. The failure of the economy to provide enough high-level jobs forced an increasing number of college graduates to accept positions for which they were overqualified. Most of this mismatching of workers to jobs occurred during the 1970s, when the U.S. economy experienced several recessions. The mass media and several scholarly publications called attention to the plight of college graduates during this period, particularly during the recession of 1974-75.[7] Some observers viewed these mismatches as a short-term problem that tends to occur during economic recessions. But other observers noted and called attention to the extended duration of the problem. Several studies show that large discrepancies existed between the educational levels of U.S. workers and the educational requirements of their jobs, even prior to the vast expansion of higher education in the 1960s.[8]

As early as 1960, about one-third of all young college graduates were employed in occupations other than high-level professional and managerial areas – jobs that did not require a college education for satisfactory work performance (Table 1).

Table 1. The Job Market for College Graduates, 1960-1990

	Actual			Projected
	1960 %	1970 %	1980 %	1990 %
Proportion of labor force with four years of college or more				
All workers	9.7	12.9	18.2	23.5*
Young workers	13.4	17.7	26.5	32.1*
Proportion of high-level jobs in economy	24.0	24.7	25.5	26.7
Proportion of young college graduates employed in high-level jobs				
Males	67.1	70.1	59.4	?
Females	71.7	76.5	59.0	?

*Based on the increase between 1980 and 1990 projected by Denis F. Johnston, applied to the actual 1980 figures reported above.

Sources: Russell W. Rumberger, "The Job Market for College Graduates, 1960-1980," *Journal of Higher Education*, in press, Tables 1, 2, 5, and 7; and Denis F. Johnston, "Education of Workers: Projections to 1990," *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1973, Table 3.

> More than 20% of all recent female college graduates in 1980 were employed in secretarial or other clerical positions, a greater proportion than in 1960.

Although employment opportunities improved somewhat during the 1960s, they deteriorated steadily during the 1970s. By 1980 almost half of all recent college graduates were employed outside the professional and managerial occupations. More than 20% of all recent female college graduates in 1980 were employed in secretarial or other clerical positions, a greater proportion than in 1960.[9]

Other studies also reveal large disparities in the current economic positions of educated workers. In a recent survey, one-third of all adult workers reported that they have skills that they do not use in their current jobs.[10] More than 25% of recent college graduates reported that they are underemployed in their current jobs.[11] Meanwhile, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics estimated that the 1980 labor force had a surplus of 3.8 million college graduates.[12]

THE SEEMINGLY poor economic position of many educated workers in the U.S. today would be more bearable if the future promised better conditions. But that does not appear to be the case. Government projections indicate that professional employment will grow more slowly in the 1980s than it did in either the 1960s or the 1970s.[13]

Many observers believe that high technology will be an important new source of job growth in the U.S. during the coming decades.[14] It is true that some high-level, technical occupations (e.g., computer systems analyst and aero-astronautic engineer) will be among the fastest-growing occupations during the 1980s, but these specialties will actually provide few jobs (Table 2). The 10 occupations that will produce the greatest numbers of new jobs in our future economy are unrelated to high technology; indeed, only one of these occupations – nursing – even requires a college education. Most new jobs will be in low-level service and clerical fields; janitors, sales clerks, and cashiers will be in demand.

Not only will high technology fail to produce a large number of new, high-level jobs directly, but the application of technology in the workplace seems likely to *decrease* the skills that many existing jobs now require. New and more sophisticated technologies, rooted in the microelectronics revolution, are rapidly transforming almost all areas of work. An increasing number of workers will use computers in their jobs. However, the use of increasingly sophisticated technologies does not require that workers have increasingly sophisticated skills. On the contrary, computers and other microelectronic devices have the capacity for making sophisticated decisions on their own. Thus the workers who operate these devices make fewer judgments and therefore have less need for high-level skills. For example, cashiers no longer need to know how to add and subtract, because modern cash registers carry out all the necessary computations.

The impact of technology on work depends on how the technology is applied. Employers have long recognized that they can reduce their labor costs by fragmenting jobs into component parts and then hiring workers with the minimal requisite skills (whose wages are lower than more highly skilled workers) to perform each set of tasks. Technology aids this process by enabling machines to perform more of these tasks. Whereas the earlier technologies enabled machines to perform physical tasks and thus displace physical labor, the newer technologies enable machines to perform mental tasks and thus displace mental labor. As machines become able to perform increasingly complex tasks, more and more workers are likely to need fewer and fewer high-level skills. For instance, secretaries no longer need highly developed spelling and typing skills, because word processors can automatically correct typing and spelling errors.

The ability of technology to displace mental, as well as physical, labor also means that machines can handle an increasing number of jobs on their own, thereby increasing unemployment rates. Robots and automatic tellers are only two examples of this phenomenon. The displacement of human workers by machines is most likely to occur among middle-level and semi-skilled jobs (those that pay from $9 to $12 an hour), rather than among low-paying service jobs. As a result, U.S. society may become increasingly bipolar, with some people employed in high-level

Table 2. Fastest-Growing Occupations in U.S. Economy, 1978-1990

	Relative Growth (Percentage Increase)	Absolute Growth (Number of Jobs)
Fastest Relative Growth*		
1. Data processing machine mechanics	148	93,000
2. Paralegal workers	132	38,000
3. Computer systems analysts	108	199,000
4. Computer operators	88	148,000
5. Office machine and cash register services	81	40,000
6. Computer programmers	74	150,000
7. Aero-astronautic engineers	70	41,000
8. Food preparation and service workers, fast-food restaurants	69	492,000
9. Employment interviewers	67	35,000
10. Tax preparers	65	18,000
Fastest Absolute Growth**		
1. Janitors and sextons	26	672,000
2. Nurses' aides and orderlies	55	594,000
3. Sales clerks	21	591,000
4. Cashiers	36	545,000
5. Waiters/waitresses	35	532,000
6. General clerks, office	23	530,000
7. Professional nurses	50	516,000
8. Food preparation and service workers, fast-food restaurants	69	492,000
9. Secretaries	21	486,000
10. Truck drivers	26	438,000

*Based on the percentage increase in the number of jobs created between 1978 and 1990.

**Based on the absolute growth in the number of jobs created between 1978 and 1990.

Source: Max L. Carey, "Occupational Employment Growth Through 1990," *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1981, Table 2. The 1990 figures are based on low-growth projections.

professional and managerial jobs while others are employed in low-level, low-paying service jobs. Still other individuals may fail to find work at all, since even a modest level of economic growth is unable to provide jobs for everyone.

Although the growth of job opportunities that require advanced schooling will be modest in the coming decade, the educational level of American workers will continue to increase. The number of young students will decline, but adult participation in higher education will continue to increase. Thus total enrollments in higher education are projected to remain fairly constant over this decade.[15] Moreover, as older, less well-educated workers retire from the U.S. labor force, they will be replaced by younger, better-educated workers. Consequently, the imbalance between education and work is likely to continue in the years ahead.

THIS IMBALANCE has adverse consequences for those workers who are forced to accept jobs for which they are overqualified. Many young people seek further schooling in order to secure more interesting and rewarding work. Even though higher education may enhance their personal lives, they feel frustrated, disappointed, and dissatisfied with their working lives when they are forced into less rewarding and less challenging jobs. Better-educated workers are generally more satisfied with their jobs than are poorly educated workers, but research shows that workers with more education than their jobs require are likely to suffer more job dissatisfaction than other workers.[16]

Workers with underused skills are also likely to be less productive. Industrial psychologists have long maintained that the interaction between workers' characteristics and the characteristics of their jobs affects workplace attitudes and behaviors — including job satisfaction, job performance, turnover, and absenteeism. Workers' characteristics include needs, skills and abilities, aspirations and expectations, and personality traits. Job characteristics include both technical aspects, such as salary and fringe benefits, and social aspects, such as relationships with fellow workers and supervisors.

Discrepancies between workers' characteristics and job characteristics can promote adverse responses in two ways. First, individuals whose skills are underused in their jobs are more likely than other workers to be dissatisfied, to have poor mental health, and to exhibit poor work performance. Second, workers with unfulfilled expectations — whether these expectations have to do with salary or with other job characteristics — display similar adverse responses.[17]

Nor are consequences of this condition confined to individual workers. Poor work performance, high turnover rates, and absenteeism affect the productivity of whole companies and of the entire economy. The U.S. enjoyed rapid growth in labor productivity through most of this century. This growth produced the highest standard of living in the world. By the mid-Sixties, however, growth in productivity slowed, and by the late Seventies labor productivity actually declined. Economists have demonstrated the significant contributions of education to economic growth, even during recent economic downturns. Thus the continued increase in the educational attainments of the U.S. workforce makes the recent decline in productivity all the more disturbing. It is probably no coincidence that this decline has occurred during a period when an increasing number of highly educated workers, especially college graduates, have moved into lower-level jobs that leave them unchallenged, dissatisfied, and unproductive.

THE SEVERITY of the consequences that arise from an imbalance between education and work suggests that action should be taken to address this situation. Individuals, employers, and government all play a role in furthering or erasing this imbalance. Individual decisions about participation in education affect the quality and quantity of educated labor available in the marketplace. Employers' decisions about how to organize work determine the number of jobs available in the market and the skills that these jobs require. Government decisions regarding subsidies and policies influence the decisions of individuals and of employers — and hence affect both the supply of educated labor and the demand for its services. Past decisions by individuals, employers, and the government have led to the current situation. Are future decisions likely to reduce the problem or exacerbate it?

No one knows for sure. The prevailing view is that employers will respond to the current situation through adjustments in market prices, thereby influencing the decisions of individuals and reducing the severity of the problem. If the number of college graduates entering the job market exceeds the number of available jobs requiring a college education, the earnings of college graduates should decline and enrollments in higher education should fall. But recent evidence suggests that the market has not responded in this fashion. The relative earnings of college graduates declined only slightly during the 1970s, even as the number of college-educated individuals entering the market increased rapidly and more of these entrants were forced to accept jobs for which they were overqualified.[18] And while enrollments in higher education among young people slowed during this period, adult enrollments rose rapidly. Thus the financial incentive to invest in higher education still remains quite high, and the best jobs in the U.S. will continue to go to those who have the most schooling. Furthermore, women and minorities are likely to in-

"I haven't decided definitely on a career yet, but I certainly don't want something that requires a lot of preparation."

Although shortages of certain skills will always exist in the labor market, an excess of skilled labor creates a more widespread and serious discrepancy.

crease their participation in higher education as a means of achieving social mobility.

As I have already pointed out, employers have a financial incentive to fragment work tasks and to decrease the skill requirements of jobs in order to reduce their labor costs. Therefore, even though they are faced with a better-educated and more highly skilled workforce, employers may be unable to use workers' education and skills in the short run. But some employers have recognized that, in the long run, they can more effectively use the abilities and talents of their employees by giving them more responsibility and more accountability for their actions and work. Experiments with these kinds of changes have markedly improved employee morale, turnover rates, and productivity.

In Sweden, for example, the employee turnover rate in one Saab/Trollhatten assembly plant decreased from 53% to 14% after management incorporated the workers into assembly teams that took over responsibility for internal assignments, scheduling, training, purchase and maintenance of equipment, and job rotation.[19] Unfortunately, such experiments are rare and unlikely to become more widespread, because they threaten traditional forms of control.

The government can play a central role in addressing the current imbalance. One possible action would be to reduce public support of education. Some critics argue that public subsidies at the postsecondary level are unnecessary, because private incentives to invest in additional schooling will insure an ample supply of trained labor.[20] But many people feel that the benefits of education to individuals and to the society justify continued high levels of public investment, despite the negative consequences of imbalance in the labor market. More important, many groups view education as the path to social mobility and thus strongly favor its continued support.

The government could also influence the demand for educated labor. Through public sector employment and through spending in the private sector, the government generates a substantial portion of the jobs in our economy and an even larger portion of high-level professional jobs.[21] The educational sector of government itself provides a large number of jobs in teaching, administration, and research. Thus continued support for government programs would help to insure a substantial number of high-level jobs in the U.S. The government could also influence the demand for educated labor in the private sector through tax incentives and other policies that retard the replacement of skilled labor by machines. The government could promote alternative types of work organizations, such as producer cooperatives, that generate more jobs at a given level of capital expenditure and provide flexible work environments that more fully use workers' skills, capacities, and talents.[22]

THE RECENT evaluations of the U.S. educational system are calling for reforms and a strengthening of education at all levels. Underlying this concern is a belief that the growth of the U.S. economy and its move into high technology require a significant upgrading of the education of the American workforce. A particular concern is that, as more workers use computers and other sophisticated devices in their jobs, they will need advanced skills in computer programming and other technical areas. There is a growing apprehension that failure to provide this training will leave a serious gap between the demands of work and the availability of properly trained workers that will slow economic progress and threaten the nation's ability to compete in the international marketplace.

But a mass of evidence suggests that the U.S. labor market already has an abundance of highly skilled workers whose talents are not fully used. Growth in the demand for skilled labor has failed to keep abreast of the vast growth in the supply of highly educated workers. Such workers find that their jobs lack challenges; worse yet, overqualified workers may be contributing to the slowdown in productivity that has plagued the U.S. for the last 15 years. Employment projections suggest that this imbalance is likely to become worse as future job growth favors low-skilled service and clerical positions. Although shortages of certain skills will always exist in the labor market, an excess of skilled labor creates a more widespread and serious discrepancy.

Education develops the human resources that help drive our economy. Many government officials and educators have called for increased investment in education in order to create a greater abundance of human resources for our economic future. Yet the more compelling challenge now facing the U.S. is to use effectively the human resources that already exist. To ignore this challenge will waste an important national resource; it could also threaten our future economic well-being. ☐

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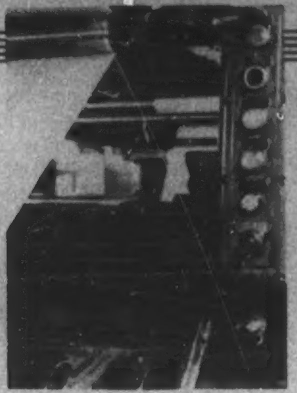
1. This situation also exists in other developed (and even underdeveloped) countries. See, for example, *Employment Prospects for Higher Education Graduates* (Paris: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1981); and Rafael L. Irizarry, "Overeducation and Unemployment in the Third World," *Comparative Education Review*, October 1980, pp. 338-52.
2. For examples of the uses of these terms and for their various definitions, see Richard B. Freeman, *The Overeducated American* (New York: Academic Press, 1975); V. Lane Rawlins and Lloyd Ulman, "The Utilization of College-Trained Manpower in the United States," in Margaret S. Gordon, ed., *Higher Education and the Labor Market* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974), pp. 195-235; and Clifford C. Clogg, *Measuring Underemployment* (New York: Academic Press, 1979).
3. Freeman, p. 14.
4. Clogg, pp. 22-23.
5. Russell W. Rumberger, "The Job Market for College Graduates, 1960-1990," *Journal of Higher Education*, in press, Table 1.
6. Ibid., Table 2.
7. Freeman, *The Overeducated American*; and Caroline Bird, *The Case Against College* (New York: David McKay, 1975).
8. Rawlins and Ulman, pp. 198-208; and Ivar Berg, *Education and Jobs: The Great Training Robbery* (New York: Praeger, 1970), pp. 38-60.
9. Rumberger, Table 5.
10. Graham L. Staines and Robert P. Quinn, "American Workers Evaluate the Quality of Their Jobs," *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1979, Table 4.
11. A. Stafford Metz and Charles H. Hammer, *Labor Force Status of Recent College Graduates* (Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, 1981), p. 3.
12. U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Occupational Projections and Training Data* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1982), p. 11.
13. Rumberger, Tables 2 and 7.
14. Henry M. Levin and Russell W. Rumberger, "The Low-Skill Future of High Tech," *Technology Review*, August/September 1983, pp. 18-21.
15. National Center for Education Statistics, *The Condition of Education* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1982), p. 128.
16. Berg, *Education and Jobs* . . .; and Robert P. Quinn and Martha S. Mandilovitch, *Education and Job Satisfaction: A Questionable Payoff* (Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, November 1975).
17. Russell W. Rumberger, *Overeducation in the U.S. Labor Market* (New York: Praeger, 1981), Ch. 5.
18. Rumberger, "The Job Market for College Graduates. . . ," Table 5.
19. John Logue, "Saab/Trollhatten: Reforming Work Life on the Shop Floor," *Working Life in Sweden*, June 1981, pp. 1-4.
20. See, for example, Milton Friedman, *Capitalism and Freedom* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962), Ch. 6.
21. Martin Carnoy, Derek Shearer, and Russell Rumberger, *A New Social Contract* (New York: Harper & Row, 1983), Ch. 6.
22. Henry M. Levin, "The Workplace: Employment and Business Interventions," in Edward Seidman, ed., *Handbook of Social Interventions* (Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage, 1983).



NEWSNOTES

KAPPAN Special Report

The 1983 SAT Scores And Their Link to Nuclear Fallout

by Ernest J. Sternglass and Steven Bell

FOR THE THIRD year in a row, Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores for the U.S. as a whole remained steady or, in some cases, actually began to rise again, after nearly two decades of steady decline. This pattern is consistent with our hypothesis: that the principal factor influencing the score decline was the massive amount of iodine-131 produced by nuclear fission during the years of heavy atmospheric testing of nuclear bombs.[1] Iodine-131 is known to concentrate in the thyroid glands of infants, where hormones that control brain development are produced.

The U.S., Great Britain, and the Soviet Union signed an atmospheric test-ban treaty in 1963, after which only France and China continued to carry out atmospheric tests. This caused the large-scale production of short-lived iodine-131 to decline sharply. Our hypothesis thus predicts a reduction in the cognitive damage to infants (as reflected in scores on the SATs administered to high school juniors and seniors some 17 to 18 years after the cessation of atmospheric testing).

A recent article in the *Kappan* questioned this hypothesis.[2] Therefore it is important that we subject the hypothesis to further testing by examining the newly available data on 1983 SAT scores.[3]

To support our hypothesis that bomb fallout led to cognitive damage during early infant development, we would have to find relatively abrupt declines or rises in the test scores of high school juniors and seniors some 17 to 18 years after the atmospheric nuclear tests began or ended — and these changes would have to fall into definite geographical patterns, in accordance with the distance of the test takers, as infants, from the sources of the fallout. Thus, unlike socioeconomic, educational, and medical factors (such as smoking) that cause changes only slowly and are more nearly nationwide, the changes caused by short-lived fallout can vary dramatically in a single year and will show large geographical differences, which depend on the direction of the drift of fallout clouds and on local patterns of rainfall.

THIS IS precisely what the latest state-by-state data on SAT scores show. The changes in average scores on both the verbal and the mathematics subtests vary widely by state. For example, as Figure 1 shows, scores rose in the band of central states that stretches from Nevada to Pennsylvania and New Jersey. At the same time, scores declined in the northernmost states — but more so in the Pacific Northwest than in extreme northern states to the east (e.g., northern New England).

Thus, while all the central states (those lying roughly in a line from Nevada to New Jersey) registered rises in SAT scores that averaged 2.6 points, states in the northernmost tier (those stretching from Alaska to Maine) registered declines that averaged three points. The greatest decline (nine points) occurred in Alaska. Declines became progressively smaller as one moved east; Vermont and New Hampshire actually registered one-point increases, while Maine held steady.

Our hypothesis predicts precisely this pattern. The first atmospheric bomb tests carried out by China, in October 1964 and in May 1965, produced large amounts of iodine-131. At that time, scientists measured high fallout levels all across the northern U.S. and Canada. Lesser amounts of fallout passed southward along the Pacific coast and across the Gulf coast states.

In sharp contrast, the dry central states that lie downwind or to the east of the Nevada test site uniformly showed either large rises or no declines in 1983 SAT scores — exactly as our hypothesis would predict, given the cessation in 1963 of large-scale atmospheric tests in Nevada. Again, just as we would expect, Utah — which earlier experienced the greatest test score declines attributable to the atmospheric tests in Nevada — also experienced the greatest rise or "rebound" in SAT scores in 1983. The average verbal score for all the central states rose by 2.6 points, while the average verbal score in Utah rose by an unprecedented 14 points in a single year. Clearly, we cannot attribute this large rise to an overnight improvement in the quality of Utah schools or to a sudden reduction in the time spent watching television that occurred only in the Nevada/Utah area.

Thus it appears that the onset of atmospheric bomb testing by the Chinese in 1964, following the cessation of atmospheric tests in Nevada a year earlier, has provided yet another confirmation of our hypothesis: that the unexpectedly severe biological action of fallout on the thyroids of developing infants accounts for most of the earlier, sudden decline and for the recent rise in average SAT scores for the U.S. as a whole — despite the fact that only a relatively small number of weapons were detonated, and those in remote areas such as the western deserts of both the U.S. and China.

ERNEST J. STERNGLASS is a professor of radiological physics in the Department of Radiology at the University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine. STEVEN BELL is an associate professor in the Department of Education and Psychology, Berry College, Mount Berry, Ga.

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[1] For a more detailed discussion of this hypothesis and its supporting evidence, see "The Nuclear Radiation/SAT Decline Connection," *Phi Delta Kappan*, November 1979, pp. 184-87; and Ernest J. Sternglass and Steven Bell, "Fallout and SAT Scores: Evidence for Cognitive Damage During Early Infancy," *Phi Delta Kappan*, April 1983, pp. 539-45.

[2] Robert Ehrlich, "The Link Between Radioactive Fallout and SAT Scores Is Nonexistent," *Phi Delta Kappan*, June 1983, pp. 729-30.

[3] College Board, 888 Seventh Ave., New York, NY 10018, 17 September 1983. ☐

New NIE Price Index Shows School Costs Have Doubled Between 1975 and 1982

THE COST OF running elementary and secondary schools nearly doubled between 1975 and 1982. Employee fringe benefits and utility prices contributed substantially to the increase, according to a newly devised measure of school expenses.

Goods and services that schools paid $100 for in 1975 cost them $181.70 in 1982, the National Institute of Education (NIE) reports in a new book, *Inflation*

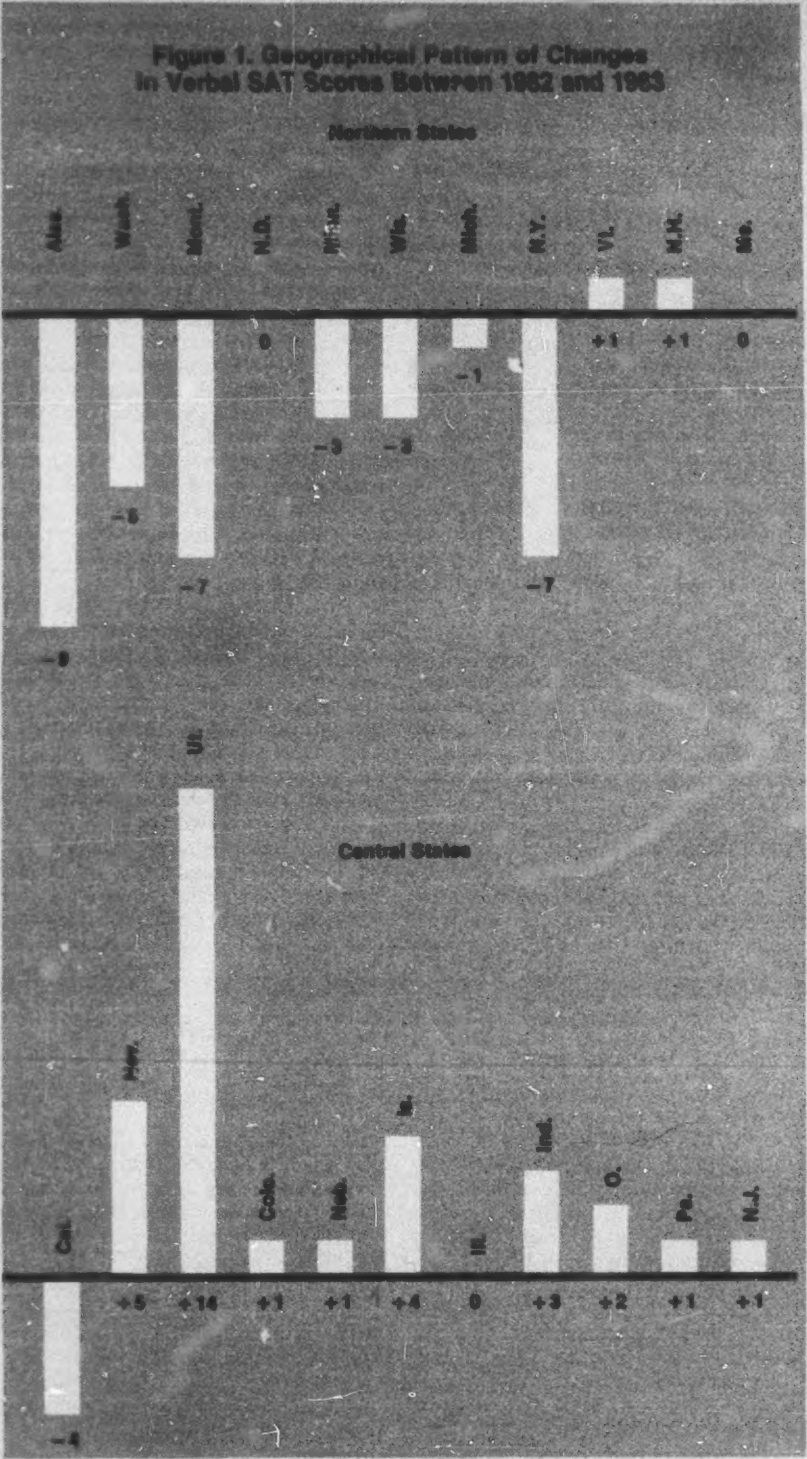
Figure 1. Geographical Pattern of Changes in Verbal SAT Scores Between 1982 and 1983

Measures for Schools and Colleges. While total school costs rose 81.7% between 1975 and 1982, employee fringe benefits increased 179.7%, and utility expenses increased 184.6%. Salaries for teachers and other professionals went up 65.8% over the seven-year period covered by the NIE study. These and more than 100 other school expenditures have been combined to make up the School Price Index (SPI), a new measuring device formulated by Kent Halstead, NIE senior associate.

According to Halstead, the SPI tracks price changes in salaries, fringe benefits, supplies, materials, equipment replacement, books and periodicals, utilities, and fixed costs. Capital outlay and debt service are not included in the index. The SPI is a "market basket" index, with costs of goods and services repriced each year and compared with the costs for the base year (1974-75).

The SPI documents the amount of money needed for "business as usual," Halstead said. "Few financial supporters can deny that funding should at least maintain the status quo. Price indexes reliably report increased funding requirements that can be defended as essential, if services are to be maintained."

Copies of *Inflation Measures for Schools and Colleges* are available for $6 each from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402, Stock No. 065-000-00186-1. A 1983 update to the SPI is available for $25 from Research Associates of Washington, 2605 Klingle Rd., N.W., Washington, DC 20008. Ph. 202/966-3326.

Material for this column was provided by Education Daily, *published by Capitol Publications, Arlington, Va.*

Aliens in Texas Pay for Public Services Through Taxes, Study Finds

UNDOCUMENTED ALIENS in Texas pay more than enough in taxes to compensate for the public services they receive, including education, researchers at the University of Texas have found. In a study of the costs of providing education, health, social, and criminal justice services for undocumented aliens, the researchers learned that aliens pay more in federal income, sales, and excise taxes than is spent on programs for them.

A conservative comparison of the highest estimated program costs and the lowest estimated revenues from aliens showed that Texas spent $97 million for public services last year, while it pulled in at least $157 million in tax revenues from aliens. "I'm sure that the public impression is that undocumented workers are draining the tax base," said Gilberto Cardenas, co-director of the study. "That is not true."

However, sociologist Cardenas and public affairs researcher Sidney Weintraub also looked at the cost/revenue picture for six urban areas of Texas. They found that these cities bear a greater cost for serving undocumented aliens than tax receipts can cover.

Austin, Dallas, Houston, San Antonio, El Paso, and the McAllen area in the Rio Grande Valley spent as much as $35 million on services to aliens, but they collected only $5 million to $8 million in taxes from aliens, the researchers estimated. When costs and revenues are broken down by state and local levels, local governments bear the brunt of the cost burden, and the state receives the bulk of the revenues, they concluded.

In an unsuccessful case before the U.S. Supreme Court, Texas fought against providing free schooling to undocumented aliens. But the state used inflated estimates of the illegal alien population in Texas, Cardenas said. Texas warned that more than 100,000 undocumented aliens would flood the schools following the High Court decision in *Doe* v. *Plyler*. But, in the wake of that ruling, the Texas Education Agency last year counted fewer than 20,000 undocumented aliens in Texas schools, according to Cardenas.

For more information on this study, contact the Office of Public Affairs, Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs, University of Texas, Austin, TX 78712. Ph. 512/471-4962, ext. 218.

Senate Votes to Table Proposal to Establish Tuition Tax Credits

IGNORING PLEAS from President Reagan, the Senate knocked down the Administration's proposal of tuition tax credits for the parents of private school students. Just before adjourning for the year, in what was considered a test ballot on the issue, the lawmakers voted 59-38 to table an amendment to establish federal tuition tax credits of up to $300 a year by 1986 for taxpayers who earn less than $50,000. The vote sends the credits into legislative oblivion — at least until the next session of Congress convenes this month.

Opponents of the tax credit proposal began to filibuster after Senate Majority Leader Howard Baker surprised them by suddenly bringing up the bill to which the credits were to be attached. Baker brought up the measure because President Reagan wanted a vote before adjournment.

Feeling certain that they had enough votes to table the amendment, the opponents decided to allow the vote, after making certain — through the initial filibuster — that everyone knew they disapproved of having it slipped in at the end of the session, according to an aide to Sen. Ernest Hollings (D-S.C.), leader of the fight against the credits.

"Here we are rushing to adjournment. It just doesn't make any sense to bring up something as hotly contested as tuition tax credits at the last minute," said Hollings's legislative director, Ashley Thrift.

During floor debate, the rush to act on the measure was termed "precipitous and almost reckless" by Sen. Robert Stafford (R-Vt.), chairman of the education, arts, and humanities subcommittee. The discussion is "narrowly political," and the Senate "should hesitate before doing anything to jeopardize" the public schools, Stafford said in urging a vote to table the measure.

Hollings termed the measure a "ripoff for the rich" and said Reagan's interest in the proposal shows that "public schools come last" in the President's education priorities. Sen. Robert Dole (R-Kan.), chairman of the Senate Finance Committee, who led the push for the measure, countered, "None of us are standing back one inch from public education."

Tuition tax credits have gone nowhere in the House.

Sixth Circuit Rules That Courts May Not Interfere With Educational Decisions

A FEDERAL appeals court has upheld the right of school officials to select the best program for a handicapped child. The judiciary has no right to interfere with educational decisions, the court said.

The parents of Thomas Rettig — in 1979 a 16-year-old autistic child — asked that the U.S. District Court for the Northern District of Ohio order the Kent City School District to provide their son with specific programs, such as summer classes and year-round therapy. The lower court refused to require the programs, and the Sixth Circuit agreed.

Judge Robert Krupansky of the Sixth Circuit ruled that the parents' arguments that their son was denied a free and appropriate public education "merely reflect a difference of opinion as to the most effective teaching methods available." Basing his decision on the U.S. Supreme Court's ruling in *Board of Education* v. *Rowley*, Judge Krupansky wrote, "The courts are not free to choose between competing educational theories and to impose that selection upon the school system." In *Rowley*, Krupansky noted, the Court ruled that a state would be in compliance with the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, P.L. 94-142, if it followed the procedures outlined in the law and if the educational program developed through the procedures was "reasonably calculated" to enable a child to receive educational benefits.

Thomas's mother, Eva Rettig, who represented her son in the case, *Rettig* v. *Kent School District*, declined to comment on the decision. She said it was "premature" to say whether she plans to ask the Supreme Court to review the decision.

Frederick Compton, the attorney for the school district, said he is "extremely pleased" with the decision, which is "a complete and total win for us." The lower court had ruled against the school district on one point, ordering it to provide one hour of extracurricular instruction a week for Rettig. But the Sixth Circuit reversed that part of the lower court decision.

Administration Policies on Education Funding And Title IX Are Out of Step with Public Opinion

PRESIDENT REAGAN'S policies on education funding and Title IX are out of step with the opinions of the majority of Americans, according to a poll of 1,023 people conducted for the Project on Equal Education Rights (PEER).

The poll found that 68.3% of Americans believe federal laws against sex bias should cover all students in a school, even those in athletic and other programs that do not receive direct federal support. Only 20.1% agreed with the position taken by the Justice Department that sex bias laws should cover only those students in programs that receive federal funds directly. Attitudes on Title IX varied by political affiliation: 23.8% of Republicans favored the narrower interpretation of the law, but only 19.9% of Democrats did so.

The poll taken by PEER — a project of the Legal Defense and Education Fund of the National Organization for Women — also found that 42% of all Americans would vote for a Presidential candidate who made education a higher priority than defense. Only 22% would not. Another 27% of the sample said that they would vote for the candidate whose top priority was helping the poor; only 22% said a strong defense should be the top priority.

On the matter of federal aid, 66% said it is very important in upgrading schools, and another 27% said it is somewhat important. Democrats were far more likely to rank federal dollars as very important than were Republicans, although 59.3% of Republicans called federal aid very important for improving the schools.

The poll, conducted by Research and Forecasts, Inc., a public opinion research firm, also found that 88% of the public feel that schools encourage female students to choose their own courses of study, even such traditionally male subjects as mechanics and mathematics.

PHI DELTA

3/2/84

March 1984

KAPPAN

Can Research Influence Practice?

- Elliot Eisner
- Eva Baker
- Mark Yudof
- Arthur Jensen

ENTRANCE
GYMNASIUM
ONE + WON
THREE FOURTHS
EXIT→
2+2=4

Education Abroad: A Special Section

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Sex Education: An Overview Of Current Programs, Policies, and Research

by Asta M. Kenney and Margaret Terry Orr

Is there a new, more approving climate for sex education? Possibly, but sex education remains controversial, despite the enormous diversity of program offerings nationwide.

IN JUNE 1981, the Alexandria, Virginia, school board ventured into new territory. It approved an eighth-grade sex education course that included discussion of masturbation, homosexuality, incest, venereal disease, and contraception – all placed in the context of personal values. One board member voiced his surprise at the ease with which the course was adopted, as compared with an earlier experience in neighboring Fairfax County. "I thought we'd have a tremendous fight about the Fairfax Five [birth control, venereal disease, abortion, homosexuality, and rape and incest]," he said, "but we didn't." Is the Alexandria experience indicative of a new climate for sex education?

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The sharp increases in sexual activity, pregnancy, abortion, and out-of-wedlock births over the past decade (see Tables 1 and 2) are of profound concern to many Americans. Almost 40% of today's 20-year-old women have had at least one pregnancy while in their teens. Twenty-one percent have had at least one birth, and more than one in seven have had at least one abortion.[1]

The reasons for statistics such as these are complex and not fully understood. Many experts believe that they are related to such factors as changing societal values that make sexual activity and out-of-wedlock childbearing more acceptable, changing family structures, the portrayal of sex in the media, the earlier maturation of teenagers today, and the ready availability of methods of birth control. To some extent, however, a situation that has always existed is simply more visible because more comprehensive data have become available.

In the face of a host of societal pressures favoring early sexual experiences, it is remarkable that births to teenagers declined significantly over the past decade, that pregnancies increased more slowly than might have been expected in light of the sharp increase in sexual activity, and that the out-of-wedlock birthrate climbed less sharply than in the 1960s.[2] These trends are certainly due, at least in part, to the increased availability of information and contraceptive services and to the legalization of abortion nationwide in 1973.

The need for sex education is confirmed by the fact that 36% of first premarital pregnancies occur in the first three months of sexual activity, before most of the young women have sought effective methods of contraception.[3] Society has few ways of preventing unintended teenage pregnancies. Sex education is one method that offers two great advantages: it can reach all young people before they become sexually active, and information can be provided to them at relatively low cost through the schools and other delivery systems.

Table 1. Teenage Pregnancies and Their Outcomes: 1980, 1973, and 1970

	Pregnancies*	All Births	Out-of-Wedlock Births	Abortions*	Miscarriages*
1980					
Ages 13-19	1,181,000	562,000	272,000	460,000	159,000
Under 18	469,000	208,000	131,000	199,000	62,000
1973					
Ages 13-19	1,008,000	617,000	205,000	243,000	148,000
Under 18	442,000	251,000	111,000	128,000	63,000
1970					
Ages 13-19	997,000	656,000	201,000	190,000	151,000
Under 18	370,000	235,000	107,000	80,000	55,000

*Figures for pregnancies, abortions, and miscarriages for 1970 are estimates.

Sources: Pregnancies: *Factbook on Teenage Pregnancy, Tables and References for Teenage Pregnancy: The Problem That Hasn't Gone Away* (New York: Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1981); and Alan Guttmacher Institute, unpublished data. Births: National Center for Health Statistics, *Advance Report of Final Natality Statistics, 1980* (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health and Human Services, 1982); and idem, *Teenage Childbearing: United States, 1966-75* (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1977). Out-of-wedlock births: National Center for Health Statistics, *Advance Report* . . . ; idem, *Teenage Childbearing* . . . ; and Alan Guttmacher Institute, unpublished data. Abortions: Stanley K. Henshaw and Kevin O'Reilly, "Characteristics of Abortion Patients in the U.S., 1979 and 1980," *Family Planning Perspectives*, January/February 1983, p. 5; *Factbook* . . . ; and Alan Guttmacher Institute, unpublished data. Miscarriages: *Factbook* . . . ; and Alan Guttmacher Institute, unpublished data.

Table 2. Proportion of Unmarried Teenage Females and Males in Metropolitan Areas Who Were Sexually Active at Selected Ages, 1979 and 1971

Females	Age 15 %	Age 17 %	Age 19 %
1979	22	48	69
1971	14	26	46
Males			
1979	--	56	78

Source: *Factbook on Teenage Pregnancy, Tables and References for Teenage Pregnancy: The Problem That Hasn't Gone Away* (New York: Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1981).

FOR SEVERAL decades, sex education sought to help young people understand the physical changes associated with puberty, the biology of reproduction, and the responsibilities of family life. Today, however, most Americans believe that sex education should also address the complex problems of human sexuality that young people face. But a few people still believe that sex education – particularly when it covers methods of contraception – actually increases teenagers' sexual activity, causes an upswing in unintended pregnancies among that age group, and undermines the family unit. Thus sex education remains controversial.

Not surprisingly, sex education programs today are enormously diverse. They range from a short unit on menstruation to comprehensive family-life education programs that begin in kindergarten and continue through grade 12. Program goals are equally diverse. They include helping young people feel more comfortable about their sexuality, contributing to a better understanding between the sexes, and, in some cases (albeit relatively few), preventing teenage pregnancies. In addition to public and private schools, the sponsors of sex education programs include YWCAs, YMCAs, Boys and Girls Clubs, church groups (including Catholic ones), Scout troops, family-planning clinics, local health departments, and many other organizations and institutions.

Given the wide variety of programs, it is difficult to present a full and coherent picture of them all. We will focus primarily on those programs operated by public high schools – particularly those programs that seem likely to contribute to a reduction in unintended teenage pregnancies. But we must first point out the fact that relatively little research on sex education has been conducted, and much of the existing research consists of small-scale studies of local programs or suffers from the lack of a uniform definition of "sex education." Although we have made every effort to present the findings of the largest and most reliable studies, these data are by no means all-inclusive or conclusive.

Public Support

Numerous polls demonstrate broad support for sex education in the schools. In a National Broadcasting Company/Associated Press (NBC/AP) poll in 1981, for example, 75% of respondents said that they approved of sex education in the public schools.[4] More recently, a 1982 survey by the National Opinion Research Center found that 82% of adult respondents supported such programs.[5] Moreover, as Table 3 shows, such approval has been growing since the mid-Sixties.

Polls also show strong support for including information on methods of birth control in sex education courses. In a 1981 survey of voters by Yankelovich, Skelly, and White, 70% of the respondents said that they approved of disseminating information on birth control in sex education classes.[6] And, as Table 3 shows, a 1977 Gallup poll found that 69% of the respondents approved of this practice.

Parents strongly support sex education in the schools. Indeed, they are more likely to be supportive than other adults – by a margin of 80% to 70% – according to the 1981 NBC/AP poll. Moreover, the 1977 Gallup poll showed no major differences between men and women, whites and nonwhites, Catholics and Protestants, or Democrats and Republicans in their support of sex education.[7]

Teenagers also believe that sex education is important. A University of Michigan survey of high school seniors in 1978 showed that 84% of those who had received sex education in school – and 88% of those who had studied birth control – considered these studies worthwhile. Seventy-eight percent of seniors who did not have any instruction and 77% of those who did not have instruction that included information on birth control wished that they had received such instruction.[8] A 1978 Gallup youth survey found that, among 13- to 18-year-olds, 82% of those who had taken part in a sex education course thought it helpful; instruction that included birth control information was almost twice as likely to be rated "very helpful" as instruction that did not.[9]

Opinions among educators are consistent with opinions among other segments of the population. A 1982 survey of school board members and school superintendents in Indiana showed that 82% approved of sex education in their schools, 49% considered contraception an essential topic, and an additional 31% believed that this topic should "probably" be included.[10]

Although Americans support sex education in the schools, they still believe that parents have the *primary* responsibility for talking to their children about sex-related topics. In a 1979 survey by Yankelovich, Skelly, and White, 84% of the parents of teenagers said that it was up to them to teach their youngsters about birth control.[11] However, parents say that they want assistance. A 1981 survey in Fresno, California, showed that 81% of a large sample of parents with children between the ages of 10 and 17 thought that they "should not be the only ones to provide sex education"; 70% believed that the schools should also provide such instruction.[12]

Clearly, parents prefer to have some say about whether their youngsters will be exposed to sex education and what form

Table 3. National Opinion Research Center (NORC) and Gallup Poll Findings On Sex Education in the Schools

	NORC*			Gallup**			Gallup†		
	Approve %	Disapprove %	No Opinion %	Approve %	Disapprove %	No Opinion %	Approve %	Disapprove %	No Opinion %
1982	82	15	3						
1977	77	21	2	77	16	7	69	6	2
1975	76	20	4						
1974	79	17	4						
1970				65	28	7	36	23	6
1969				71	22	7	55	12	4
1965				69	22	9	46	18	5

*Question: "Would you be for or against sex education in the public schools?"

**Question: "Do you approve or disapprove of schools giving courses in sex education?"

†Question: "Would you approve or disapprove if [sex education] courses discussed birth control?"

Sources: *General Social Surveys, 1972-1982: Cumulative Codebook* (Chicago: National Opinion Research Center, 1982); and "Growing Number of Americans Favor Discussion of Sex in Classroom," news release from the Gallup Organization, Princeton, N.J., 23 January 1978.

Fewer than 20% of the parents who were surveyed said that sex education gives children an unhealthy view of sex.

that instruction will take. Public support for sex education drops significantly if it is offered without parental consent: a 1980 Gallup poll found that 79% of adults supported sex education with parental consent — but only 34% approved of such instruction without parental consent.[13]

Consistent with their support for sex education, most Americans also think that such instruction is likely to be beneficial. According to the 1981 NBC/AP poll, 67% of adults believe that sex education classes give students a healthy view of sex; moreover, parents of school-aged or younger children are more likely than other adults to hold this view. Fewer than 20% of the parents who were surveyed said that such instruction gives children an unhealthy view of sex. Meanwhile, only 12% of adults (9% of parents and 14% of nonparents) said that they believed that sex education will "encourage" students to become sexually active.

Several studies show that virtually all parents translate their support of sex education into practice by permitting their youngsters to enroll in sex education courses when they are offered. For example, a recent evaluation of family-life education programs in 12 California school districts, in which 18,000 junior and senior high school students participated, showed that 81% of the parents supported the program; over a two-year period, fewer than 2% of the parents chose to keep their children from participating.[14]

Finally, controversy about a program does not always indicate community opposition to sex education. Rather, it may reflect concern about the topics to be included, the lack of parental involvement, or the teacher's credentials. In most cases, an airing of these concerns does not jeopardize the program. A 1971 study of a national sample of large school districts found that three-fourths of the districts that considered instituting sex education actually adopted a program; of those that initially turned down sex education, many later reconsidered and adopted it. Furthermore, once a program was in place, fewer than 10% encountered opposition strong enough to lead to its elimination or curtailment. Indeed, almost half of the districts later expanded their programs as a result of the opposition.[15]

Prevalence of Sex Education

Sex education is more prevalent than it used to be. The 1971 study of large school districts showed that approximately 55% of them offered sex education programs.[16] In 1977, 36% of public high schools (*not* school districts) offered *separate courses* in family-life or sex education, according to a 1977 survey by the National Institute of Education.[17] Meanwhile, an Urban Institute survey of almost 200 school districts in large U.S. cities in 1982 showed that three out of four school districts with junior and/or senior high schools offered some sex education — though not necessarily separate courses on that subject — in some or all of their schools.[18] An analysis of school and community characteristics, using data from the NIE survey, revealed that no one type of school or community is significantly more likely than others to offer a sex education course.[19]

Surveys of students to determine whether they have received sex education reinforce these findings. For example, a Johns Hopkins University study in 1979 found that, in a national sample, 76% of females between the ages of 15 and 17 and of males between the ages of 17 and 18 had received some classroom instruction on human sexuality.[20] A 1978 University of Michigan survey of U.S. high school seniors showed that 60% had taken a unit on sex education while in high school.[21] A Gallup poll of 13- to 18-year-olds that same year found that 43% had taken a separate sex education course.[22]

Content and Practice

Two major national studies provide insight into the content and organization of sex education in public secondary schools. One is an analysis by the Alan Guttmacher Institute (AGI) of a 1978 National Institute of Education survey of sex education teachers in more than 200 public high schools that offered sex education courses.[23] The other is the 1982 Urban Institute survey of almost 200 school districts in large cities.[24] Despite the five-year interval between these studies and their different approaches, their findings are remarkably similar.

Sex education courses have many titles (family-life education, human growth and development, and health education, to mention only a few), and these titles often reflect the differing content and emphases of the courses. Regardless of what they are called, these courses are considered a part of basic education, according to the school officials who responded to these surveys. The primary goals of the courses, these officials say, are to increase students' knowledge about human sexuality and to help them make responsible decisions about their lives. In only 37% of the programs described by the AGI study is the reduction of teenage pregnancy considered a primary goal. This holds true whether sex education is taught separately or as part of another course. Moreover, instruction is remarkably comprehensive; about 18 topics — ranging from "drugs, alcohol, and sex" to "love and marriage" — are generally covered.

Given the goals of most sex education programs, it is not surprising that both surveys show the most frequently covered topics to be anatomy and physiology, pregnancy and child-bearing, and venereal disease (Table 4). Approximately 75% of the programs also provide information about contraception, abortion, and the likelihood of teenage pregnancies. This information, according to the Urban Institute survey, is usually introduced in grade 9 or 10. But these topics are apparently not covered in depth; only 60% of the districts that provide sex education devote one or more class periods to contraception, according to the Urban Institute survey — although 82% of the districts devote at least that much time to the study of bodily changes during puberty.

The 1978 University of Michigan survey of high school seniors reported that 49% had studied birth control in school, and the 1978 Gallup poll of somewhat younger teenagers found that 31% had been taught about contraception. A national survey in 1979 of unmarried females between the ages of 15 and 19 and of unmarried males between the ages of 17 and 21 found that about 65% had studied contraception — a higher figure that is probably explained by the facts that this study involved older teens in metropolitan areas and that the question covered both school and nonschool instruction.[25]

Topics such as alternatives to abortion, avoiding unwanted sex, and other moral issues are often included in the curriculum. But such controversial issues as masturbation, homosexuality, and (particularly) sexual techniques are covered more rarely, according to both surveys.

If not taught as a separate course, sex education is almost always integrated into such other subjects as family living, home economics, biology, or physical education and, according to the Urban Institute survey, generally occupies six to 20 hours of class time per year. The AGI study found that most instructors reported that their high school *courses* in sex education last five to 20 hours per semester, and 92% said that these courses are coeducational. The Urban Institute found that, at the junior high level, instruction is more frequently segregated by sex, with only 70%

If teenage females are sexually active, those who have had sex education seem less likely to become pregnant.

of the classes enrolling both boys and girls.

The AGI study found that teachers of high school sex education courses generally are certified in physical education, home economics, science, or social studies. Most teach these subjects in addition to sex education, and more than half had taught sex education for five years or more at the time of the survey. The average age of the teachers was 38, and slightly more than half were male. The most commonly used instructional methods were lectures and group discussions; 86% of the teachers used commercially developed instructional materials, but many also said that they prepared their own supplementary materials.

State laws and policies strongly encourage (and, in some cases, mandate) parental and community participation in planning for sex education. Surprisingly, the AGI study found that only 28% of the high schools that offered sex education had involved parents in the development of the curriculum. A similar proportion of these high schools (29%) require parental permission for students to participate; many others undoubtedly allow parents to request that their children be excused from instruction. Only 12% of these high schools actually involve parents in classroom discussions. However, the AGI study showed that, when parents are involved in curriculum development, more topics (and more controversial topics, such as masturbation and homosexuality) are included in the sex education program.

Effects of Sex Education

One of the most complex and least explored issues related to sex education is the critical question of its effectiveness. Sex education programs face an awesome task: attempting to modify, in a few hours of classroom instruction, the messages that young people receive every day from their friends, the mass media, and other sources. Furthermore, the link between knowledge and behavior is tenuous and difficult to prove, particularly since parents and educators may be reluctant to ask students sensitive questions about their knowledge of sex-related topics, their behavior, and their values.

Very few sex education programs have been systematically evaluated, and most of the evaluations that have been conducted have focused on college, rather than high school, classes. There have been virtually no attempts to conduct follow-up studies to ascertain the long-term effects of sex education on students' knowledge, attitudes, and behavior.

However, a new nationwide study, conducted by researchers at Johns Hopkins University, does address the central question of the relationship between sex education and adolescent sexual activity, the use of contraceptives, and pregnancy.[26] The authors concluded that "the data seem to provide overwhelming support for the claim that the decision to engage in sexual activity is not influenced by whether or not teenagers have had sex education in school." They also found no association between sexual activity and courses that cover contraception. Perhaps the most important finding is that, if teenage females are sexually active, those who have had sex education seem less likely than others to become pregnant. Approximately 60% more white females and 70% more black females became pregnant if they had *not* received sex education than if they had. The researchers also found that young women who had received sex education that included discussions of contraceptive methods appeared somewhat more likely to use contraception the first time they engaged in intercourse and thereafter than those who had not received such instruction.

A federally funded review of the literature three years earlier reached one of the same conclusions arrived at by the Johns Hopkins researchers: no evidence supports the beliefs that sex education will increase *or* decrease the sexual activity of participants.[27] Meanwhile, other earlier studies have shown that sex education increases knowledge, as measured by tests before and after instruction. Studies of the long-term retention of such knowledge are lacking; however, a national survey in 1976 found that, among a large sample of 15- to 19-year-old females, those who had taken a sex education course at some

Table 4. Content of School Sex Education Programs

Alan Guttmacher Institute/ National Institute of Education (1978)		Urban Institute (1982)	
Topic	**Frequency of Inclusion %**	**Topic**	**Frequency of Inclusion %**
Anatomy and physiology	90	Physical differences	98
Pregnancy and childbirth	96	Pregnancy and childbirth	90
Venereal disease	97	Sexually transmitted diseases	96
Teenage pregnancy	90	Consequences of teen pregnancy	85
Contraceptive methods	78	Contraceptives	72
		Sources of family planning services	77
		Most likely time in cycle for pregnancy	79
Abortion	78	Abortion	47
Abortion alternatives	73		
Avoiding unwanted sex	65	Resistance to peer pressure for sex	76
Moral values	70	Personal values	82
Sexual techniques	6		
Masturbation	53	Masturbation	57
Homosexuality	52	Homosexuality	40

Sources: Margaret T. Orr, "Sex Education and Contraceptive Education in U.S. Public High Schools," *Family Planning Perspectives*, November/December 1982, p. 304; and Freya L. Sonenstein and Karen Pittman, "Sex Education in Public Schools: A Look at the Big U.S. Cities," paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council on Family Relations, Washington, D.C., October 1982.

point in their lives were 40% more likely than others to know the time of the month when pregnancy is most likely to occur.[28]

Studies of attitude changes among high school students as a result of sex education are rare, but available evidence indicates that students who are exposed to such instruction do not develop more permissive attitudes toward sexual activity. A recent study of 100 eighth-graders found that sex education increased students' knowledge but did not reduce their guilt feelings.[29] Another study of 100 high school students showed that these teenagers did not become more permissive in their attitudes toward sexual behavior as a result of sex education. However, they did become more confident in their ability to make "correct" decisions about their own sexual behavior and more "liberal" in their thinking on family planning and abortion.[30] The evaluation of family-life education in 12 California school districts – and some earlier studies, as well – found that sex education could have a positive effect on students' self-esteem and decision-making skills, two qualities that appear to be strongly related to responsible behavior.[31]

One of the most important findings concerning the effects of sex education on behavior is that such instruction can lead to better communication between parents and children. In the evaluation of family-life education in California, about 70% of the parents reported that the program had improved their communication with their youngsters.

Public Policy

Although sex education generally is – and traditionally has been – an issue handled at the local level, 31 states and the District of Columbia have adopted laws or policies to guide school districts' efforts.[32] In the remaining states, the decision to provide sex education and the methods of doing so are determined entirely by the local school districts.[33]

Maryland, New Jersey, and the District of Columbia are the only jurisdictions that have mandated the inclusion of sex education in the curriculum. Eight other states – Delaware, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Montana, Pennsylvania, and Utah – encourage such instruction. No state prohibits it, although Louisiana bars sex education prior to grade 7.

Where they exist, the state laws and policies generally encourage local school districts to involve parents and community members in the planning of sex education programs. Eight states – Arizona (for elementary programs only), Idaho, Maryland, Michigan, Nevada, New Jersey, Washington, and Wisconsin – mandate such involvement. Moreover, most such laws and policies either require or recommend that local districts make provisions for pupils to be excused from instruction at the request of their parents. In addition, many states provide some guidance on program content. For example, seven states (Connecticut, Illinois, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, and North Dakota) and the District of Columbia support covering family planning in sex education programs; three states (Kansas, Ohio, and Utah) restrict it; and three states (Connecticut, Louisiana, and Michigan) restrict instruction that has to do with abortion. The District of Columbia alone requires that instruction on contraception and abortion be provided.

Small groups of parents have gone to court from time to time to challenge the constitutionality of sex education. Their most frequent argument is that such instruction constitutes the establishment of a religion, thus interfering with their rights under the First Amendment. Beginning with *Cornwell* v. *State Board of Education* in Maryland in 1969,[34] the courts have held that sex education is a public health measure that neither establishes any particular religious dogma nor denies religious freedom – as long as parents have the right to request that their children be excused. In *Smith* v. *Ricci* in 1982,[35] the U.S. Supreme Court dismissed an appeal by a group of parents who had challenged the mandate by the New Jersey State Board of Education that family-life education be provided in the public schools. This decision allowed the mandatory program to stand in New Jersey (where parents can exclude their children from such instruction). The courts have also made it clear that educational programs that cover birth control information are "neutral" in terms of religion, as long as they give equal time to all methods of contraception.[36] Finally, when parents have argued that their right to teach their children about sexual matters precludes school instruction, the courts have ruled that these parents cannot prevent other students from participating in sex education.[37]

Apart from the emerging constitutional framework we have just noted, there is no federal law on sex education. A policy statement issued in 1966 by the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) stresses the authority of *local* communities and educational institutions over sex education and proffers the support of the USOE (now the Department of Education) in initiating or improving programs. In practice, the department's role has been limited to providing technical assistance, on request, through a special projects section in the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Elementary and Secondary Education. However, legal authority exists for states and localities to fund sex education activities under Chapters 1 and 2 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981.[38]

In the Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS), the Office of Family Planning has spent approximately $3 million since 1970 to support a variety of projects, most of them related to curriculum development,[39] and the Bureau of Health Education in the Centers for Disease Control spent close to $2 million between 1978 and 1980 for several sex education research projects.[40] A relatively new federal program, the Adolescent Family Life Act of 1981, authorizes expenditures for family-life education programs that focus on "the problems associated with adolescent premarital sexual relations"; approximately $3 million was spent on such programs in 1982.[41] All the

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DHHS programs have involved extensive community input and have been designed to meet community needs and standards.

Despite the perception of continuing controversy, it is clear that a broad base of support for sex education exists.

DESPITE THE perception of continuing controversy over sex education programs in the schools, it is clear that a broad base of support for such instruction exists. Sex education programs are also more widely available and broader in scope than has previously been assumed. Moreover, these programs are generally designed to reflect the needs and standards of the local communities, and the teachers who serve as instructors usually have considerable experience in teaching sex education and have relevant training in related fields.

It is also clear that young people can benefit from sex education. At best, programs that are carefully designed to provide information on the responsibilities of parenthood and on methods of birth control may help to reduce unwanted pregnancies. At the very least, sex education programs seem likely to increase youngsters' knowledge about the otherwise mysterious and confusing topic of human sexuality.

In locales where the schools do not yet offer sex education programs, individuals who are willing to propose that the schools consider doing so will find support among parents, students, and educators. Although a fear of controversy has probably deterred many supporters of sex education from proposing such programs, this fear appears to be exaggerated. With parental and community involvement, comprehensive sex education programs can be implemented successfully.

Where such programs *do* exist, however, it is probably unrealistic at this time to expect sharp declines in teenage pregnancy and sexual activity. Current sex education programs do not appear to have been designed to contend specifically with these problems. If the reduction of teenage pregnancy were made a major goal, better results might perhaps be achieved. Clearly, strong public support exists for including information on contraception in the sex education curriculum – presumably because the public perceives a relationship between such knowledge and a reduction in the number of unintended teenage pregnancies. Thus the topic of contraception should no longer be considered unduly controversial. Those communities that wish to see a reduction in teenage pregnancies may wish to reexamine their sex education programs in light of this information.

However, sex education in the schools will never be a panacea. Medical services have to go hand-in-hand with education. And, ultimately, the family will continue to play a far more pivotal role than any school or outside agency in setting an example and establishing values for young people and in providing them with the information they need in order to behave wisely.

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35. 89 N.J. 514 (N.J. Sup. Ct. 1982), appeal dismissed sub nom. *Smith* v. *Brandt*, 51 USLW 3331 (U.S., 1 November 1982) (No. 82-309).

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40. Personal communication with Dr. Walter Gunn, Bureau of Health Education, Centers for Disease Control, Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta.

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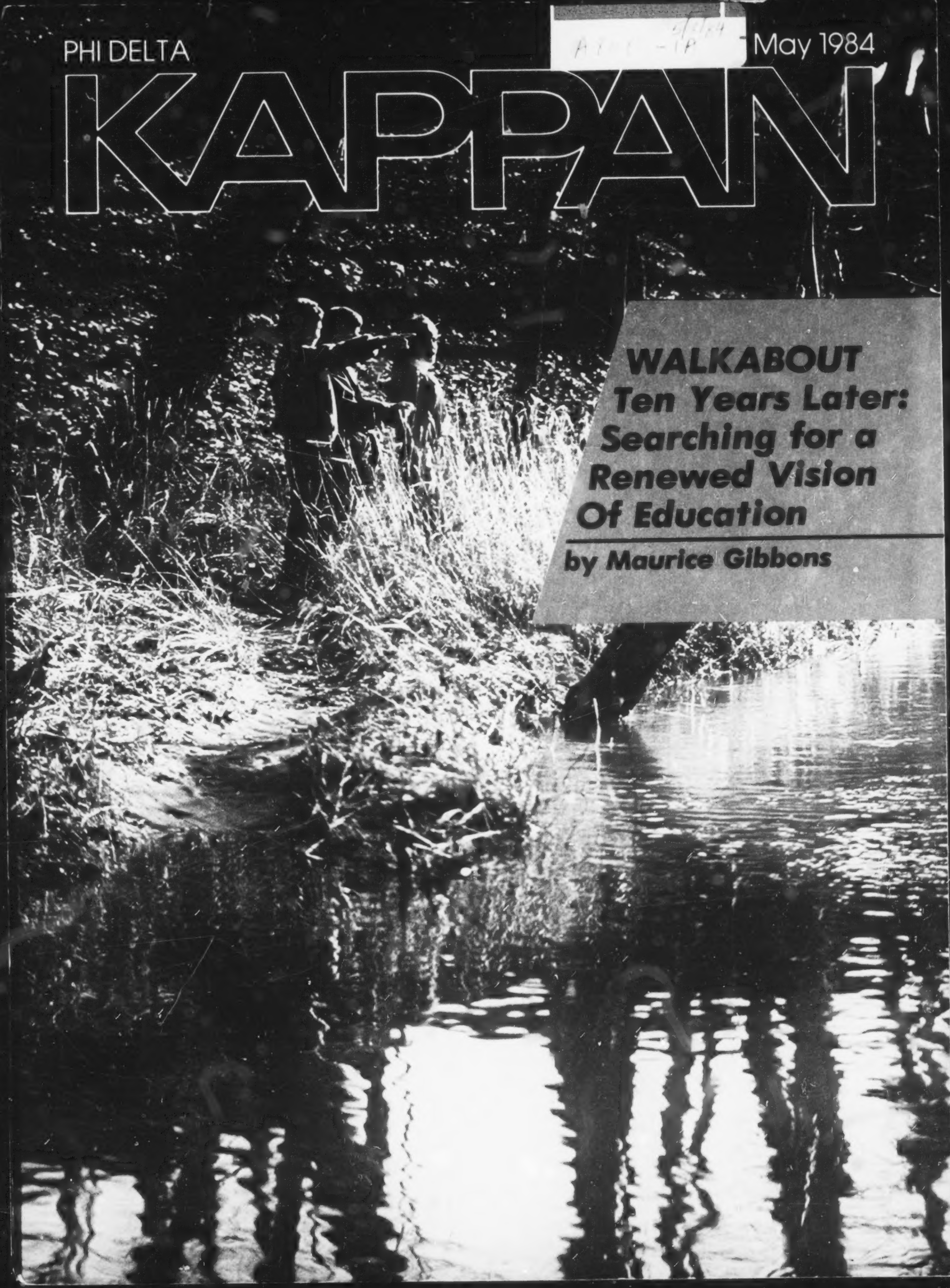
May 1984



WALKABOUT Ten Years Later: Searching for a Renewed Vision Of Education

by Maurice Gibbons

May 1984 • Volume 65 • Number 9

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Cover Photo: Bill Strother

TESTING TEACHERS IN LOUISIANA: A CLOSER LOOK

by Donald Kauchak

One by-product of competency testing for teacher certification has been a nationwide decrease in the number of blacks who enter teaching, says the author, who examines this phenomenon in one southern state.

IN THE LAST decade there has been a definite trend toward the increased use of competency tests in the certification of teachers. By 1982, 15 states required some type of competency test prior to certification,[1] and by 1985 half the states in the U.S. will do so.[2] Of the 15 states that were already using tests for certification in 1982, eight used the National Teacher Examinations (NTE).

One undesirable by-product of competency testing for teacher certification has been a nationwide decrease in the number of blacks who enter teaching.[3] I wish to explore in this article how this is happening in Louisiana.

In 1977 the Louisiana legislature passed a law that stipulated that all new applicants for teacher certification must pass a competency exam.[4] The legislature did not specify the test to be used or the cutoff score to be reached; both of these decisions were left to the state superintendent of public instruction. The superintendent selected the NTE and convened a panel of teacher educators to recommend

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Figure 1. Percentage of Louisiana Teachers Who Are Black (By Years of Experience)

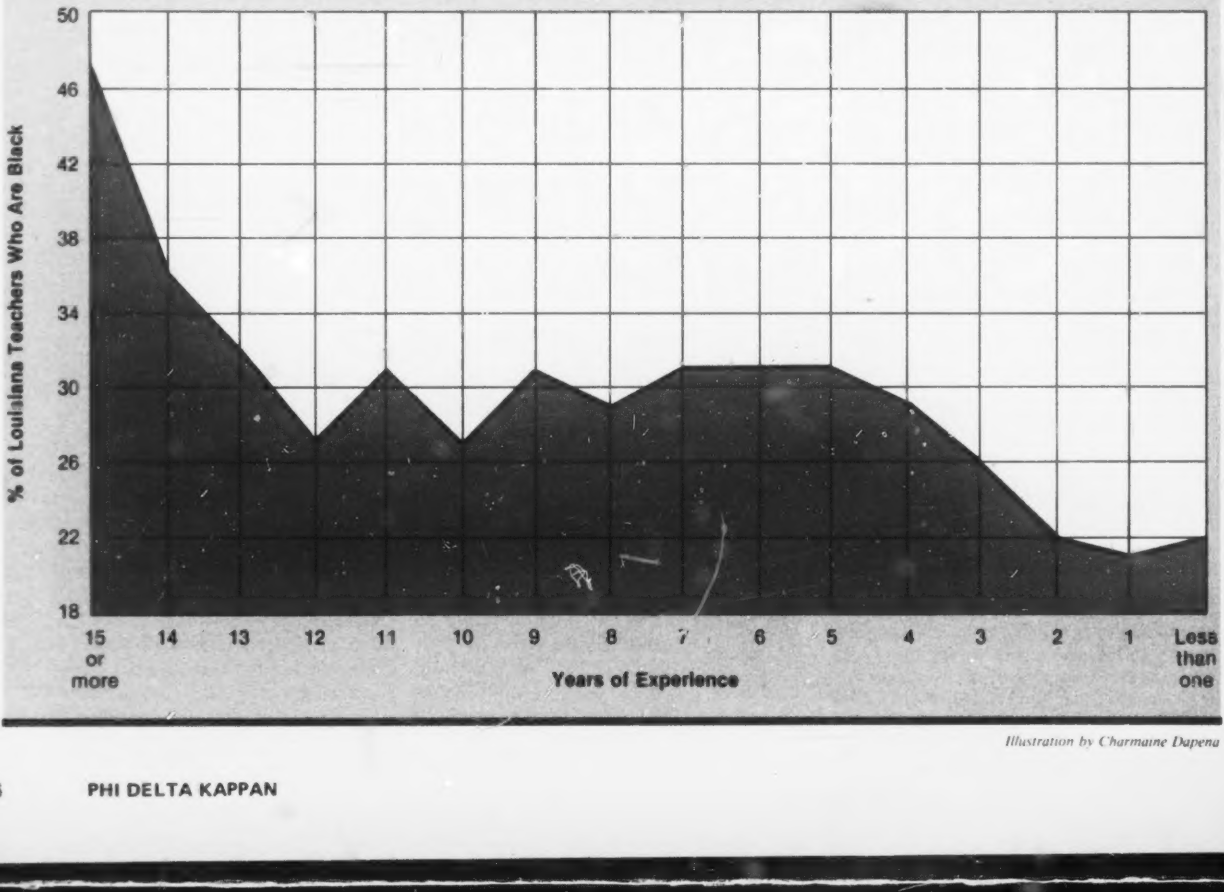

Illustration by Charmaine Dapena

minimum scores for certification in various subject areas.

As it has been used in Louisiana, the NTE consists of a common exam, which measures general professional knowledge and such general educational skills as knowledge of English and mathematics, and area exams, which measure understanding of the content and methods applicable in separate subject areas.[5] A panel of teacher educators determined cutoff scores for certification by examining individual items on these tests and considering 1) whether teacher education candidates at their institutions would have had an opportunity to learn the knowledge required to answer a given question correctly and 2) how important and difficult each item was. The cutoff scores were composite scores, so a strong showing on the common exam could offset a poor showing in a content area, or vice versa. The recommended cutoff scores ranged from about the 25th percentile in one area to the 60th percentile in another; the average was between the 40th and 45th percentiles.[6]

In 1978, when the test was first administered for purposes of certification, 502 of 950 graduates taking the test met the cutoff score, for a passing rate of 53%. In August 1982, 176 of 231 graduates taking the test met the cutoff score, for a passing rate of 76%.[7]

Superficially, these figures suggest that the new certification process has resulted in improved teacher education programs, as reflected in the higher percentage of 1982 graduates who passed the test. And it is tempting to conclude that education in Louisiana must also have improved. However, a closer look at the data from five years of testing in Louisiana raises some questions about such facile conclusions.

A Study in Black and White

In 1980 blacks made up 29.4% of Louisiana's population.[8] Figures from the state department of education show that 37% of the schoolchildren and 34% of the teachers in the state are black.[9] This latter figure remained fairly stable between 1973 and 1982. But the use of the NTE in the certification process is changing that picture.

Figure 1 shows the percentage of Louisiana teachers with specified amounts of experience who are black.[10] Two points should be noted. First, the sharp drop in the percentage of black teachers who have fewer than four years of experience roughly corresponds to the beginning of competency testing for certification in the state. Second, 47% of teachers with 15 or more years of teaching experience are black. We can only speculate as to why the percentage of black teachers with so many years of experience is so high. Probably the best explanation is that in segregated times in Louisiana teaching was one of the few respected professions open to blacks. Whatever the reasons for the declining percentage of blacks entering the profession, as current teachers grow older and retire, the racial composition of the teaching force will change.

I should note at this point that the percentages displayed in Figure 1 are probably slightly inflated because they include teachers teaching on emergency certificates. Emergency certificates are issued to candidates scoring within 10 percentage points of the criterion score in their area. These certificates are valid for one year and must be renewed yearly. But transition to regular status depends on retaking and passing the NTE.

The most recent decline in the percentage of blacks entering the teaching force in Louisiana can be explained by examining data on the performance of blacks on the NTE. Since the beginning of competency testing in Louisiana in 1978, only 15% of the 1,394 black students from public institutions who took the NTE achieved a passing score. This figure represents a 10% passing rate for blacks at predominantly black public institutions and a 28% passing rate for blacks at predominantly white public institutions in the state.[11]

Thus a partial explanation for the declining percentage of black teachers in Louisiana is that blacks are experiencing difficulty in passing the NTE. But by itself the passing rate of blacks does not fully account for the drop in the percentage of black teachers entering the teaching force in the state. There has also been a decline in the number of black graduates of public institutions who took the test. Table 1 shows a steady decline over the years in both the absolute and relative numbers of blacks who took the NTE.[12] Thirty-one percent of all Louisiana students who took the NTE in 1978 were black; only 13% of all Louisiana students who took the test in 1982 were black. The absolute numbers show a similar drop.

Since the inception of competency testing in Louisiana, only 211 black graduates of public institutions in the state have passed the NTE.

Table 1. Race of NTE Test Takers in Louisiana, 1978-82

Year	Number of Black Graduates Taking NTE	Percent of Total Test Takers	Number of White Graduates Taking NTE	Percent of Total Test Takers
1978*	284	31	634	69
1979**	444	22	1,562	78
1980**	361	21	1,358	79
1981**	210	17	1,050	83
1982†	95	13	616	87

*One test administration.
**Three test administrations.
†Two test administrations recorded for 1982.

Since the inception of competency testing in Louisiana, only 211 black graduates of public institutions in the state have passed the NTE — just over 40 black students per year. This figure is well below the 580 black teachers that should have been hired each year if the racial composition of the teaching force was to be maintained at pre-1978 levels.[13]

What effect has all of this had on blacks entering teacher education programs? Teacher education enrollments at the two largest predominantly black institutions in the state have declined dramatically. The number of junior education majors at these institutions declined from 400 in 1979-80 to 273 in 1981-82 — a 32% drop. The number of senior education majors at these two institutions fell from 768 in 1979-80 to 389 in 1981-82 — a decline of 49%.[14]

Do these enrollment figures mean that prospective black teachers are leaving these predominantly black institutions for institutions where the passing rate is higher? Obtaining accurate data on student transfers from one institution to another is not easy, but two isolated bits of information suggest that large numbers of black students are not migrating to other institutions. First, the number of black graduates of predominantly white institutions who took the NTE has not increased. Instead, it has declined consistently over the last five years, with only 39 blacks from predominantly white in-

Recently, only 23% of teacher education graduates from the two largest predominantly black institutions in Louisiana attempted the NTE.

stitutions sitting for the first two administrations of the test in 1982, down from 79 in 1979, 55 in 1980, and 53 in 1981.[15] Second, figures from the Baton Rouge campus of Louisiana State University, the campus that produces the largest number of candidates for certification, reveal no demonstrable increase in the number of blacks seeking admission to teacher education programs over the last three years.[16]

Some Questions

The present trend is clear: fewer blacks are becoming teachers in Louisiana. Its three immediate causes — the low passing rate for blacks on the NTE, the decline in the percentage of black graduates of teacher education programs who attempt the NTE, and the decline in the numbers of blacks entering education programs — are also clear. What is unclear are the reasons that underlie these immediate causes.

Why do blacks have trouble passing the NTE? Is the kind of training they receive at predominantly black institutions in the state a factor? Possibly. A consortium of nine predominantly black colleges in the Southeast believes that a partial answer to this question lies in the mismatch between the training at their institutions and the kinds of questions asked on the NTE. The schools involved are attempting to match their curricula to the content of the NTE through the infusion of more analytical approaches to problem solving in their teacher education programs.[17]

But research on the NTE suggests that improved teacher education programs might be only a partial solution to the problem. In a study conducted in North Carolina, researchers found a .88 correlation between scores on the NTE common examination and Scholastic Aptitude Test scores. This high correlation suggests that part of the problem blacks are having with the NTE may lie in weak academic preparation *prior* to entering college.[18]

What is happening to the black students who no longer enter teacher education programs? And what of the large percentage of black graduates who complete teacher education programs and never attempt the NTE? For the last three administrations of the test, only 23% of teacher education graduates from the two largest predominantly black institutions in Louisiana attempted the NTE. What happened to the other 77% who spent four years training to be teachers?[19] Are they less competent or just less confident than those who attempted the test? Are they now employed in states that don't require a competency test, or have they left teaching altogether for more lucrative or more accessible occupations?

"It's great how Mr. Watson's able to communicate with kids on their own level!"

These are just a few of the nagging questions raised by the first few years of experience with a practice that was designed to bring excellence to Louisiana education. Unfortunately, few concerted efforts to answer these questions have been made. Dialogue in Louisiana appears to have polarized around two points of view: one questions the validity of the NTE; the other questions the ability of black students to pass standardized tests or of black institutions to prepare their students to pass these tests. While this unproductive dialogue continues, a valuable human resource is wasted, and the likelihood that black students will encounter black role models in their classrooms declines.

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1. "States Moving to Assess Competency," *NTE News*, Winter 1982, p. 4.

2. Art Harris, "Competency Tests Taking a Toll on Black Teachers," *Baton Rouge Sunday Advocate*, 8 May 1983, p. 9-C.

3. "Wider Use of Tests Blamed for Decline in Number of Black Schoolteachers," *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 2 March 1983, p. 7.

4. Louisiana Revised Statutes, 17:7 (b) (i).

5. The new NTE core exam, introduced in November 1982, consists of a test of professional knowledge, a test of general knowledge, and a test of communication skills that includes subtests of listening, reading, and writing. This new NTE is now being validated in Louisiana.

6. "National Teacher Examination Composite Score Requirements for Initial Teacher Certification in Louisiana," Louisiana Department of Education, Baton Rouge, 1982.

7. "Results of National Teacher Examinations," in *Louisiana's Education*, Vols. II-VI (Baton Rouge: Louisiana Department of Education, 1978-82).

8. U.S. Bureau of the Census, "General Population Characteristics, Part 20, Louisiana," *1980 Census of the Population* (Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1982).

9. *133rd Annual Report, 1981-82* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana Department of Education, 1982).

10. "Number of Teachers by Years of Experience and School Level," *Annual Statistical Report of Education*, Part IIB, Section 1, 1981-1982, unpublished, Louisiana Department of Education, Baton Rouge.

11. "Performance of Louisiana Students on NTE by Race, December 1978-August 1982," unpublished, Board of Regents, Baton Rouge, 1983. (Comparable figures for private institutions in the state were not available, but these institutions typically provide only about 10% of the new teacher candidates in the state.)

12. Ibid.

13. This latter figure was calculated by multiplying the number of new teachers in the state with three years or less experience by .34.

14. "Student Headcount by Declared Major (Detailed)," Louisiana Board of Regents, Baton Rouge, 1979-80 — 1981-82.

15. "Performance of Louisiana Students. . . ."

16. "Transfers to College of Education" (unpublished), Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, 1979-82.

17. "Black Colleges Seek to Boost Test Skills," *Education Week*, 6 April 1983, pp. 3, 17.

18. Q. Whitfield Ayres, "Student Achievement at Predominantly White and Predominantly Black Universities," *American Educational Research Journal*, Summer 1983, pp. 291-304.

19. These figures do not include graduates who waited a period of time before taking the NTE. ☐

A Title I Tale: High Reading/Math Gains At Low Cost in Kansas City, Kansas

by Ruth Weinstock

A program in Kansas has demonstrated a consistently effective way of teaching large numbers of children to read and compute without breaking the bank.

AS SCHOOLPEOPLE well know, Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (now Chapter 1) provides federal funds to help meet the special educational needs of "disadvantaged" children in low-income areas. Kansas City, Kansas, is such an area.

A large number of Kansas City families fall below the median U.S. income, and many of these families receive welfare. The proportion of Kansas City children who qualify for Title I aid is substantial: 40% of the district's total enrollment of 24,000, or some 10,000 students. That proportion has remained fairly constant over the years, and the district spends between $2 million and $2.4 million annually for its Title I compensatory education activities.

To successfully provide large numbers of youngsters with the extra help that enables them to master the basic skills appropriate to their age and grade is in itself no small task. To do so without breaking the bank is an even more impressive accomplishment. On both counts, Kansas City merits the attention of hard-pressed school officials across the U.S. who are still searching for economical and effective ways to teach large numbers of children to read and compute. Consider the following.

High Gains/Low Cost

The U.S. Education Department reports that the average achievement gain for children in compensatory education programs nationwide is seven months of learning for nine months of instruction. But the Kansas City school district has set its own sights higher: officials there expect a learning gain of one month for each month of remedial instruction.

According to Stanford Achievement Tests that are administered annually in the district's elementary schools and at the end of each semester in the secondary schools, Kansas City students have consistently met that objective for almost a decade. More often than not, they have surpassed it. In some years they have surpassed it by far – with gains in mathematics tending to be slightly greater than those in reading.

"I know of no other program in the nation reporting such high gains, consistently, year after year," says Robert Kraner of the University of Texas at Houston, the author of several federally commissioned manuals on Title I. Kraner conducts annual evaluations of the Kansas City Title I program. The following are excerpts from some of his reports.

- *1977-78*: "The achievement gains are more than twice the grade-level gain reported nationally as typical for Title I populations." (Gains were, in fact, about 65% higher than would be expected in a district of this type and, in some of the secondary grades, as much as 300% higher.)
- *1978-79*: "The gains [of 1.6 months for each month of instruction for all students at all grade levels] are approximately twice the .7 grade-level gain for typical students in compensatory education programs across the nation . . . and further, they surpass the norm expectancy for average students in the same grade levels."
- *1980-81*: "Not only does the Title I program continue to demonstrate outstanding results, but the cost per pupil compares favorably with the state average. . . ."

Just how favorable is the price tag? In 1980-81, for example, the district's average cost per pupil in all Title I programs was $186; in 1979-80 it was $173. In both years, these figures were less than half the statewide average Title I cost per pupil of $385. (Table 1 provides information on gains and costs for Kansas City students in grades 3 through 6.*)

How Kansas City manages to achieve economies of this magnitude will soon become apparent. Suffice it to say here that thrift is a built-in feature of the Kansas City Title I program.

The Instructional Design

In large measure, the school district attributes its successful record to the particular instructional design it employs to remedy deficiencies in basic skills. The Title I program in Kansas City combines programmed curricula in reading and mathematics with a master plan for the delivery and management of instruction. A vital element of the delivery system is the learning centers – rooms with carrels and other special equipment and materials, supervised by specially trained teachers. Intensive individualized study takes place in the 47 learning centers located in Kansas City schools.

The programmed curricula in reading and mathematics provide individualized, self-paced, step-by-step instruction. Students respond actively and receive immediate feedback and reinforcement.

But the positive results of Title I programs in Kansas City cannot be attributed solely – or even chiefly – to programmed learning. Many other variables

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*Similar information for grades 7 through 12 is available, on request, from Orvin L. Plucker, Superintendent, Kansas City Public Schools, Library Bldg., 626 Minnesota Ave., Kansas City, KS 66101.

affect the learning outcomes from this kind of instruction. These variables include not only the substantive content of a curriculum and the skill with which this content is programmed, but also the total context in which the learning activities are conducted. In other words, certain characteristics cause some programmed materials to teach better than others.

In Kansas City, the elements that make up the total programmed-learning experience have been painstakingly developed and orchestrated. These elements include the management of the instructional process, the physical setting in which instruction takes place, the training of teachers, the interactions of teachers and students, the reward structure, the attitudes of school staffs, and so on. Let us take a closer look at these elements and at how they are combined in Kansas City to produce a noteworthy record of consistently high learning gains at low cost.

The Courses of Study

The reading or verbal skills curriculum, which spans grades K-12, contains 16 courses that deal with the full range of reading competence. The curriculum begins with the development of reading readiness and progresses to decoding skills, comprehension skills, writing, vocabulary, study skills, and the application of reading skills to everyday life, e.g., reading job applications, catalogues, labels, road maps.

Roughly 50% of the 16 courses are "core programs" that focus on fundamental skills. Whatever a student's starting point in the curriculum, he or she generally works through these programs in a predetermined sequence.

The other half of the courses are supplemental programs that provide additional practice in such skills as auditory comprehension, vocabulary, spelling, or grammar. One of these courses, "On Your Own," is a homework component designed to reinforce the skills that students have learned in school. Some of the programmed materials are bilingual (Spanish and English). A range of alternatives also exists at every grade level, from which a teacher can select materials to motivate a student or to address a specific learning problem.

A student can enter the reading curriculum at any age, at any level of proficiency, and at any point in the school year. The program allows each child to advance in accordance with his or her individual ability.

The mathematics curriculum, which covers skills from first grade through prealgebra, contains more than 900 lessons in a sequence that moves from fundamental operations through mathematical theory, geometry, introduction to algebra, the metric system, applied mathematics, and consumer mathematics. This curriculum uses elements of both "new" and traditional mathematics.

As with reading, students are placed in the mathematics program by their scores on diagnostic/prescriptive tests. Each student advances through the units at his or her own pace, completing only those lessons that focus on not-yet-mastered skills. Frequent checks by the teacher insure mastery of the instructional objectives.

Students in the Title I program come to a learning center daily for intensive, private instruction.

Table 1. Achievement Gains and Costs for Elementary Reading And Mathematics Learning Centers over an 8.5-Month Period

	Reading	Mathematics	
Year	Months Gained	Months Gained	Per-Pupil Cost
Grade 3*			
1980-81	4	7	$191
1979-80	5	10	$183
1978-79	9	14	Not Available
1977-78	9	14	$169
Grade 4*			
1980-81	9	9	$191
1979-80	9	10	$183
1978-79	12	11	Not Available
1977-78	11	12	$169
Grade 5*			
1980-81	11	12	$191
1979-80	10	12	$183
1978-79	10	11	Not Available
1977-78	10	11	$169
Grade 6*			
1980-81	9	12	$191
1979-80	10	13	$183
1978-79	10	11	Not Available
1977-78	9	14	$169

*The numbers of students in the reading-skills centers varied from 656 in grade 5 in 1980-81 to 371 in grade 6 in 1979-80. The numbers of students in the mathematics centers varied from 476 in grade 5 in 1980-81 to 215 in grade 3 in 1980-81.

Experts in learning theory and instructional design developed both of the curricula in use in Kansas City. The reading curriculum is the brainchild of B. F. Skinner, George Spache, and Stuart Margulies; the mathematics curriculum, of Louis Eigen. Both are published by the New Century Education Corporation. Under a contract with the Kansas City school district, New Century provides both the instructional materials and the constellation of equipment and management services to support their use.

The Learning Centers

At the heart of the entire instructional system are the learning centers. Students in the Title I program come to a learning center daily for 40 minutes of intensive, private instruction. This is supplemental to, not a substitute for, their regular classroom instruction in language arts or mathematics. Instead, youngsters are released from such classes as art, science, or music to work in a learning center. Each center contains:

- 28 individual carrels, each equipped with an audiotape playback unit, earphones, and a specially treated felt marker (students learn here through sound as much as sight);
- a vast inventory of curricular materials (audiotapes, booklets, diagnostic tests, and so on), all placed on open tables for easy access; and
- each student's daily progress record.

Each lab is staffed by a teacher and an aide. The atmosphere is brisk and nononsense; the routine is prescribed. Children go first to the carrels to check their folders for the day's lesson. They then proceed to the materials area to pick up tapes and texts and return to their carrels to begin work.

A typical lesson consists of instruction provided by audiocassette and printed text, along with a response sheet. The audio/print presentation enables a student to assimilate new material in small steps. To make the student an active participant, the audiotape asks frequent questions and then stops automatically to allow the student to answer. The student responds by checking an answer on the response sheet, using the special felt marker. The marker activates invisible ink that immediately reveals whether the answer is correct or incorrect. This procedure also enables a teacher to quickly scan the sheet and score the student's answers.

When a student has completed a lesson, the teacher records the score in that student's "progress plotter" and assigns the next lesson. If the student has mastered the material, he or she receives a "competency point." If the student has not mastered the material, the teacher assigns further work on the same skill.

Teacher Training

If every step in the learning center is tightly controlled for students, it is no less so for teachers. Moreover, the teachers in these centers – who might be more accurately described as "managers" – probably have to work harder than their colleagues in regular classrooms.

The extensive record keeping is one reason for this. At the elementary level, for example, learning centers operate seven periods a day, five days a week. With 28 students per period, a teacher in a learning center is responsible for 196 students a day – which translates into 980 progress records per week. Moreover, this and other tasks must be performed with strict adherence to established procedures.

To learn the system, all teachers in learning centers and their principals attend a weeklong residential training institute. Among the areas that the training sessions cover is teacher/student interaction. The trainers emphasize friendly one-to-one contact with students and positive reinforcement to help the youngsters feel good about themselves. This kind of interaction is crucially important, in order to counteract the depersonalized features of the center environment and the programmed-learning process.

Incentives and Rewards

The "competency points" awarded for successful completion of lessons are one form of positive reinforcement. In return for doing their best, students also receive free-play periods, social recognition, and teacher praise.

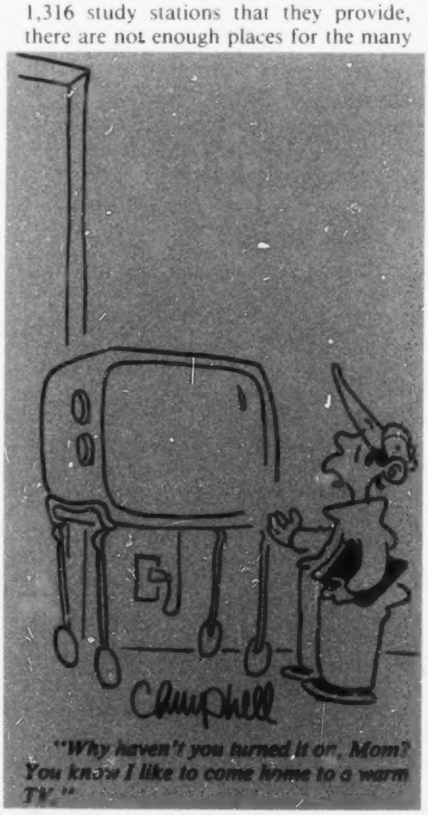
For example, when a student amasses a certain number of competency points, he or she is ceremoniously awarded a certificate of achievement. On this occasion, a school official takes a Polaroid photograph of the student accepting the award from the principal or a teacher, and the student receives the photo to keep. This strategy seems to be effective – even at the senior high school level where, despite their greater sophistication, students often dress up for the award ceremony and have their girlfriends or boyfriends join them for the picture.

A Cost Comparison

Kansas City's 47 learning centers are scattered throughout the district: 21 in elementary schools, 22 in junior high schools, and four in senior high schools. Sixteen of these are combination centers used for instruction in both reading and mathematics. These 16 centers are located in smaller elementary schools where enrollments do not justify the cost of two separate centers.

Most of the other centers focus only on reading, since reading disabilities are more widespread and usually harder to overcome than disabilities in mathematics. Data from the Kansas City school district also suggest that a correlation exists between the two types of disability: most students who have difficulty with reading also have trouble with math.

Even with 47 learning centers and the 1,316 study stations that they provide, there are not enough places for the many disadvantaged students in Kansas City who need assistance, however. Places in the centers are therefore assigned according to academic need, and students in certain grades are given priority. In the elementary schools, sixth-graders have priority, followed by fifth-graders, fourth-graders, and third-graders, in that order.



"Why haven't you turned it on, Mom? You know I like to come home to a warm TV."

First- and second-graders do not attend learning centers at all. Instead, they receive remedial instruction in small tutorial groups of seven children per teacher. Clearly, this is a costly alternative. It is used because of four considerations: 1) the younger the child, the less effective the learning center; 2) primary teachers are well trained to teach basic skills and are better equipped than other teachers to provide remediation in a traditional setting; 3) in the lower grades the spread in disability is not so great – the gap grows wider as children grow older; and 4) it is probably unsound to use two different instructional approaches in the very early years, at least until basic reading skills are partially mastered.

The two contrasting modes of remediation in Kansas City – learning centers and small tutorial groups – provide a basis for cost comparison. From year to year, the small tutorial groups have cost an average of three times as much as learning centers for each pupil served. In 1980-81, for example, tutorial groups cost $393 per pupil. That same year, elementary learning centers cost $191 per pupil, and secondary learning centers cost $140 per pupil. The telling factor is obviously the difference in teaching load: a learning center can serve 196 students per day, whereas a teacher of tutorial groups can deal effectively with only 32 children per day.

Indeed, the capacity of the learning center was a major factor in the choice of the particular programmed-learning system now in use in Kansas City. "About 10 years ago," explains Walter Davies, the assistant superintendent for instruction, "we began looking for an effective way to handle large numbers of students who needed remediation. Mostly, we found programs with built-in limitations – programs that allowed only 10 to 12 student stations, say, or that could handle a maximum of only 50 students per day. We were looking for a system that could adjust its product and service configuration in different ways. We wanted 28 stations, because that is a reasonably manageable number for a single period and it still permits us to provide service for the majority of students who need extra help in this district. We chose our particular programmed-learning system because of its instructional approach, its materials, and the fact that it provided the flexibility to set up a configuration that would meet our requirements." ☐

Writing for Professional Publication: Ways to Increase Your Success

by Kenneth T. Henson

A survey of editors of education journals reveals many commonsense ways of increasing the odds that your work will get into print.

UNIVERSITY FACULTY members who don't publish may not literally perish. But those who fail to publish face lower pay increases and fewer promotions than their more productive colleagues, and they may even find themselves out of a job.

Little wonder, then, that many questions surround the mechanisms of getting published. Is it more difficult to publish now than it was 10 years ago? Who writes for each journal? Should you try to publish in a refereed journal? Of what use are query letters? How long should you wait for a response to a query letter? How long should you wait for a decision to accept or reject a manuscript? And how can you increase the chances of getting your manuscript published?

Seeking answers to such questions, in the fall of 1983 I sent a questionnaire to the editors of 50 education journals; 41 responded. I asked these editors the questions most often asked me by inexperienced writers. Table 1 shows their responses in detail, and the remainder of this article gives an overview of my findings.

The number of articles that are published fluctuates from year to year. The responses of the editors suggest that the total number of issues of education journals has declined but that the number of articles per issue has increased. Nonetheless, some four-fifths of all manuscripts submitted to education journals are rejected.

Although some education journals focus exclusively on research and others publish no research at all, most of the journals in my sample publish a mixture of research and nonresearch articles. Indeed, the editors I surveyed said that 46% of the manuscripts they publish report at least some research findings, and 90.5% of the journals that *regularly* publish research articles also publish some nonresearch articles.

The proportion of refereed journals in education is increasing. Ten years ago 68% of the education journals in my 1983 sample were refereed. Today, more than four-fifths (81%) are refereed. (See Table 1 for the status of individual journals.)

Who writes for education journals? Three-fourths of the contributors are university personnel; only about 15% are employed in elementary and secondary schools. Most of the latter write articles describing specific programs or methods. University professors, by contrast, tend more often to write theoretical articles that cause readers to reflect. But many professors have recently begun to write practical articles as well.

Experienced contributors to education journals know that timing is everything. They keep careful tabs on the journals that regularly publish theme issues, and they know which themes are coming up and when. A good article is much less likely to be accepted when a journal has just published a theme issue on the same topic. Indeed, for as long as several months after a theme issue has been published, some editors purposefully avoid accepting articles on that particular theme. Slightly more than one-third (36%) of the journals whose editors I surveyed plan theme issues. The actual numbers are shown in Table 1, but these figures vary for a given journal from volume to volume.

Writers often ask whether they should send query letters before they submit an article. Although this seems to be a simple question, experienced editors and authors disagree on the answer to it. Two-thirds of the editors in my survey said that they do not want query letters. Those who *do* prefer to receive query letters say that such queries serve the interests of contributors. For this reason, experienced authors recommend using such letters. For one thing, query letters can save time for an author. For example, if a certain topic is not suitable for a given journal or if the journal has just carried a similar article, the editor can say this when answering the query letter, thus keeping an author from wasting time on an unacceptable manuscript.

How long does it take to receive a response to a query letter? Some editors respond within a day or two; others take as long as three weeks. The range of time it takes editors to acknowledge the receipt of a manuscript is about the same. A good rule of thumb for contributors is to give an editor two to three weeks to respond to a query letter or to acknowledge receipt of a manuscript. Only then should the contributor inquire whether the editorial office received the letter or the manuscript.

How long does it take to find out whether or not a manuscript will be accepted? Again, there are no hard and fast rules. Once a manuscript has been acknowledged, an author may rest assured that it has arrived safely. But a decision about publication can take much longer.

KENNETH T. HENSON (University of Alabama Chapter) is head of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at the University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa. He also teaches a course on writing for professional publication and conducts workshops on the same topic.

Most editors have many responsibilities in addition to manuscript selection; thus they are unlikely to be breathlessly awaiting the mail each day in order to dig into a fresh pile of manuscripts. For instance, many editorial positions require extensive travel; an editor may be out of town for several days without even knowing that a manuscript has arrived. Moreover, the process of evaluating manuscripts is a slow one, made even slower by an abundance of good manuscripts, which forces an editor to choose not merely between good and bad, but between good and very good. The delay occasioned by

Table 1. Characteristics of a Selected Sample of Education Journals

	Acceptance Rate (%)	Preferred Length (in Ms. Pages)	Min./Max. Pages	Refereed	Research Articles (%)	Articles per Year (Est.)	Issues per Year	Theme Issues per Year	Contributors Who Are University Personnel (%)	Prefer Query Letters	Days to Answer Queries (Avg.)	Days to Acknowledge Receipt of Ms. (Avg.)	Weeks Required for Decision	Effect of Photos on Acceptance
Action in Teacher Education	25	8	1-12	Yes	25	35	4	2	80	No	7	14	12	Possible
American Biology Teacher	30	12-15	*-20	Yes	10	*	8	3-4	60	Yes	5	7	15	Likely
American Journal of Education	13	*	*-20	Yes	90	11	4	1	100	No	14	14	12	None
Capstone Journal of Education	25	15	*-20	Yes	25	13	2	0	98	Yes	7	14	12-16	None
Child Development	*	15	2-50	Yes	96	*	6	1	95	No	2	1	6	None
Comparative Education Review	20	30	15-38	Yes	90	35	4	0	70	No	5	7	8	None
Computers and Education	25	20	**	Yes	100	*	4	1	100	No	**	1	12	Possible
Contemporary Education	5	10-12	1-25	Yes	10	48	4	3	75	No	2	7	2	None
Computing Teacher	30	**	½-3	Yes	10	135	9	2-3	30	Yes	10-21	7	6-12	Possible
Creative Child & Adult Quarterly	50	10	**	Yes	50	55+	4	Varies	50	No	7	21	4	Possible
Curriculum Inquiry	10	35	**	Yes	50	18	4	0	100	No	*	16	13	None
Curriculum Review	15	10-12	6-15	No	10	35	5	All	60	Yes	7-14	7	10-12	Possible
Delta Pi Epsilon	33.3	*	*	Yes	100	15	4	0	100	No	2	2	8-12	None
Early Child Development & Care	33.3	20	10-30	Yes	70	38	6	2	90	Yes	2	7	3	Possible
Early Years	2	*	*	No	0	200	9	9	*	No	*	14	2	None
Educational Forum	10	15-20	*-35	Yes	5	45	4	0	85	No	7	7	12-16	None
Educational Horizons	7.5	10-15	1-20	No	75	55	4	3	75	Yes	5	7	6	Possible
Educational Leadership	7.5	8-10	1-25	Yes	20	150	8	6-7	60	No	3	7	2-3	None
Educational Record	5.5	15-20	12-30	Yes	20	50	4	2	95	No	10	14	6	Possible
Educational Research	15	15	5-30	Yes	80	30	10	1	90	No	7-14	7-14	8-9	None
Educational Studies	*	*	*	Yes	0	7	4	0	90	Yes	5-7	7-14	*	None
Educational Technology Systems	60	20	10-30	Yes	50	30	4	1	50	Yes	10	7	10-15	Likely
High School Journal	10	8-10	2-20	Yes	60	40+	4	1-2	95	Yes	3	14	10	Possible
Instructional Innovator	33	10-12	5-30	Yes	10	80	8	8	45	No	7	21	26	Possible
International Journal of Early Childhood	*	8-12	6-12	*	*	12	2	0	50+	No	28	7	26	Likely
Journal for Research in Mathematics Education	20	20-30	*	Yes	90	25	5	1	80	No	5	7	12	None
Journal of Industrial Teacher Education	40	18-20	None	Yes	50	24	4	1	90	No	2	7	8	None
Journal of Reading	25	10-15	1-20	Yes	30	85	8	*	85	No	7	7	6	None
Journal of Reading Behavior	12.5	30	1-50	Yes	100	30	4	0	80	No	**	7	16	None
Journal of Research in Science Teaching	40	20	5-40	Yes	90	75	9	0-1	80	No	3	7	12	Likely
Journal of Teacher Education	13.1	12	6-15	Yes	35	144	6	Varies	85	No	*	7-8	5-8	None
NASSP Bulletin	18.2	8-12	7-15	No	15	180	9	9	55	Yes	3-5	2-3	4	None
Phi Delta Kappan	5	12	2-20	No	*	120	10	0	54	Yes	7	2	7	None
Reading Teacher	25	10-15	1-20	Yes	30	85	8	*	85	No	7	7	6	None
School and Community	25	5	1-15	No	25	88	6	4	27	No	5	14	2	Likely
School Science and Mathematics	10	16	*-16	Yes	20	52	8	0	50	No	2	*	3	Possible
Science Education	45	15-20	1-30	Yes	60	46	5	0	93	No	3	7	22	Possible
Social Studies	40	10	8-15	Yes	25	60	6	1	78	No	*	7	14	Possible
Teacher Educator	40	12	6-15	Yes	40	22	4	0	80	No	2	2	5-6	None
Vocational Education	5	6-8	4-10	No	**	80	8	8	50	Yes	60	60	12	Likely

* = don't know.
** = not answered.

the evaluation process will be even longer in the case of a refereed journal, which must mail copies of a manuscript to referees, wait for their responses, and then evaluate the manuscript in light of (sometimes divergent) responses.

In short, a contributor can expect to receive an acknowledgment of the safe arrival of his or her manuscript in an editorial office within two to three weeks. But a contributor should allow between three months and 4½ months for the decision on whether or not to publish the manuscript.

WHAT CAN A writer do to increase the chances that his or her article will be published? I asked the editors one final set of questions to shed some light on this issue and perhaps to give would-be contributors an advantage.

Almost half (47%) of the editors said that accompanying photos can improve a manuscript's chances of being accepted. However, only 13% of the editors said that photos are likely to have a significant effect. The best photos to send are black-and-white glossy prints; one-third of the editors prefer 8 x 10s, 30% prefer 5 x 7s, and 28% prefer 3 x 5s.

One way to increase the chances that your manuscript will be accepted is simply to avoid the common mistakes that writers make. Almost all the editors said that the most frequent mistake writers make is failing to acquaint themselves with the journal and its readers. Almost universally, these editors suggested that would-be contributors acquaint themselves with the topics, formats, length, and style of articles and with a journal's audience *before* they attempt to publish an article in that journal. Prospective authors should also read the suggestions to contributors that are published regularly by some journals and made available through the mail by others.

The editors also suggested that authors avoid jargon and write with their readers in mind. This piece of advice is not easy to follow, but it is perhaps the most important suggestion that those who wish to publish will ever be given. Specifically, the editors agreed that authors should use direct and conversational language and that they should spice their manuscripts with concrete examples wherever possible. The most deadly error a writer can make is trying to impress readers through the use of the inflated writing style and ornamental trappings of scholarship.

How can you avoid a labored, hard-to-read style? How can you make your writing easy to read? Rewrite, rewrite, rewrite. ☐

Editors Speak Out On Refereeing

by Bruce M. Smith and Pauline B. Gough

Two of the Kappan's *editors wanted to know more about the methods of manuscript selection used by editors of education journals — so they asked the editors themselves. Some of the answers are rather surprising.*

THE RULES of academic publishing are unwritten but widely known. One of the foremost of these rules is that, for purposes of promotion and tenure, publications in refereed journals carry more weight than publications in nonrefereed journals.

Some evidence suggests that other factors (i.e., the size and scope of a journal's audience and its reputation for scholarliness) can work in favor of nonrefereed journals or against refereed ones.* But are the methods of manuscript selection used by refereed journals vastly different from those used by nonrefereed journals?

To answer this question and others, we surveyed the editors of a random sample of 395 journals catalogued in the *Current Index to Journals in Education* and, without follow-up, received 176 usable responses. From what these respondents, who edit 138 refereed and 38 nonrefereed journals, told us, the similarities between the two types of journals are more striking than the differences, particularly in the area of editorial control of content.

The circulations of the journals whose editors responded ranged from fewer than 500 readers to as many as 210,000. Most of the editors (168) claimed that their journals have a national or an international audience. As might be expected, those journals with the largest audiences tended to cover the broadest range of topics, while those with smaller audiences tended more often to cover specialized areas of interest. The circulations of the refereed journals ranged from 500 to 102,000, but these journals clearly clustered at the lower end of the circulation scale. Eighteen served 1,000 to 1,999

BRUCE M. SMITH is assistant editor of the Phi Delta Kappan, *and PAULINE B. GOUGH (Indiana University Chapter) is managing editor.*

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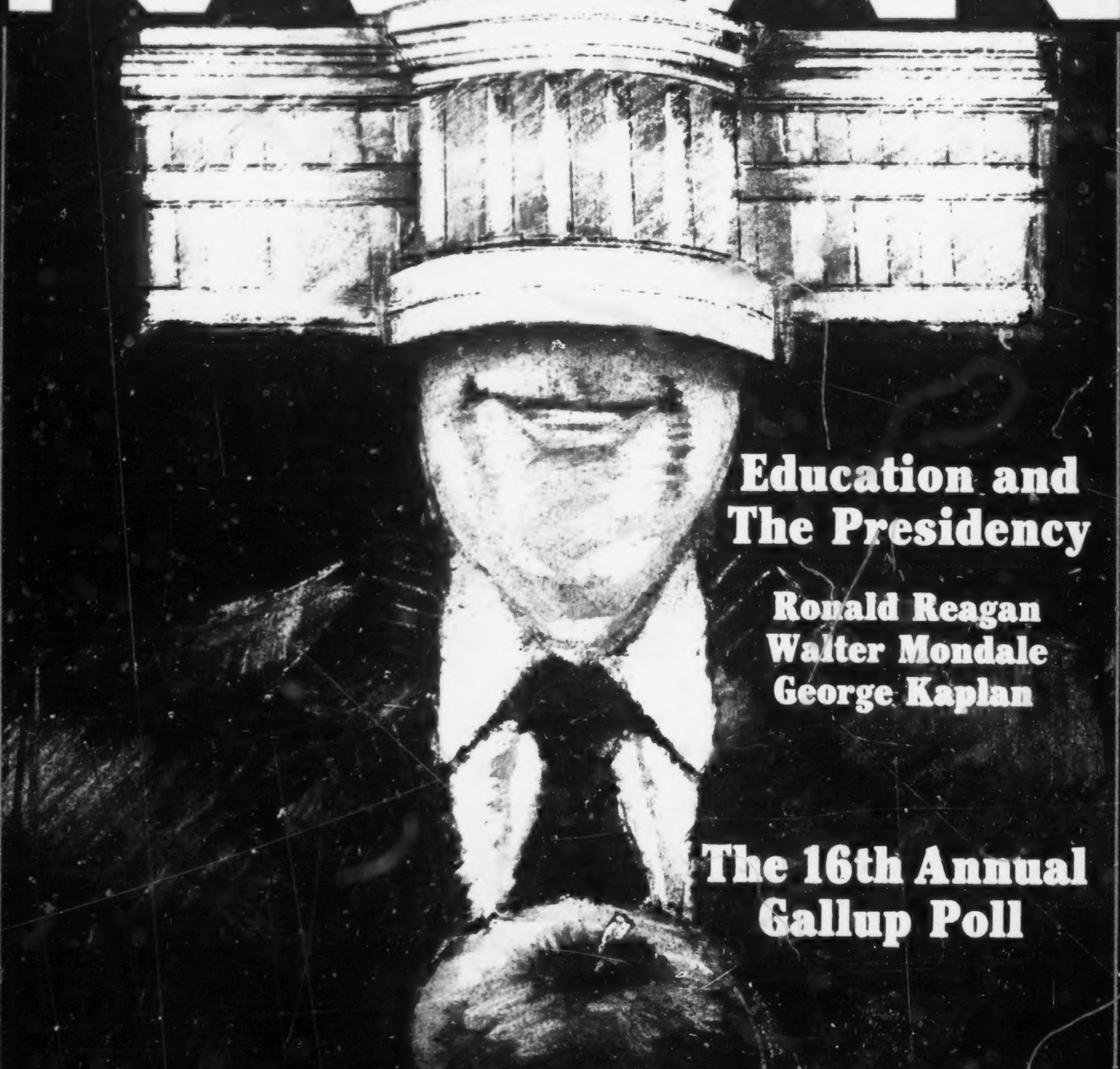
*See Robert J. Suppa and Perry A. Zirkel, "The Importance of Refereed Publications: A National Survey," *Phi Delta Kappan*, June 1983, p. 739.

PHI DELTA

SEPTEMBER 1984

KAPPAN



Education and The Presidency

Ronald Reagan
Walter Mondale
George Kaplan

The 16th Annual Gallup Poll

Phi Delta September 1984 • Volume 66 • Number 1

KAPPAN

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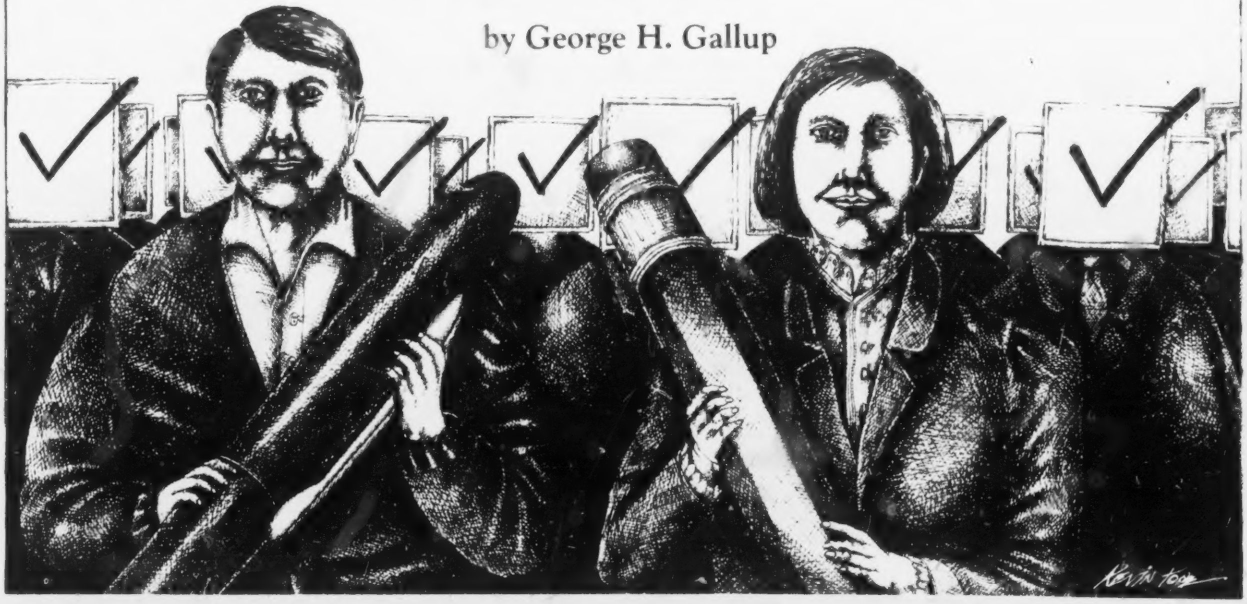
Cover Illustration: Mark Braught

The 16th Annual Gallup Poll Of the Public's Attitudes Toward The Public Schools

by George H. Gallup



The annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools, now financed by Phi Delta Kappa, is intended to be a continuing source of reliable information concerning trends in opinion about significant school questions. For school officials, the poll is valuable in at least two ways: it alerts decision makers to overall public reaction to a variety of school programs and policies, and it serves as a national benchmark against which local attitudes can be measured.

Local officials are welcome to use questions asked in the Gallup education surveys. The questions are not copyrighted. Moreover, no limits are placed on the use of information contained in these reports, beyond customary credit to the source and observance of the canons of accuracy and completeness of quotation.

Phi Delta Kappa's Dissemination Division, assisted by the Gallup Organization, is prepared to help school districts and other agencies survey local populations on education questions. For details of this service, called PACE (Polling Attitudes of the Community on Education), write or telephone Wilmer Bugher, associate executive secretary for administration, Phi Delta Kappa, P.O. Box 789, Bloomington, IN 47402. The phone number is 812/339-1156.

Illustration by Kevin Pope

Nearly 100 Phi Delta Kappans and education writers offered suggestions for this year's poll. We wish to thank them for their cooperation. We are also grateful to the panel assembled by Phi Delta Kappa last January to discuss poll questions with George Gallup and members of his staff at the headquarters of the National School Boards Association in Washington, D.C. The panel was composed of Adrienne Bailey, vice president for academic affairs, College Board; Michael J. Bakalis, professor of education and public management, School of Education, Northwestern University; David Bednarek, education writer for the *Milwaukee Journal*; Ben Brodinsky, education consultant; Jerome G. Kopp, president of Phi Delta Kappa and principal of Downey High School in Modesto, California; Anne Lewis, executive editor, *Education USA*; Glen Robinson, executive director, Educational Research Service; Thomas Shannon, executive director, National School Boards Association; John Vasconcellos, chairman, Assembly Ways and Means Committee, State of California; and Gary Wittlich, professor of music, Indiana University. Representing the Phi Delta Kappa headquarters staff were Lowell Rose, executive secretary; Robert W. Cole, Jr., editor, *Phi Delta Kappan*; and myself. — *Stanley Elam*, coordinator, Gallup-Phi Delta Kappa Education Poll.

This issue is dedicated to the memory of George H. Gallup, creator of scientific polling and one of the most influential men of this century. Dr. Gallup, who died in Switzerland on July 27, was particularly fond of the Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools; it was his favorite project. We shall miss his guiding hand and his discerning intelligence and rare good humor. — The Editors

Purpose of the Study

THIS SURVEY, which measures the attitudes of Americans toward their public schools, is the 16th annual survey in this series. Funding for this survey was provided by Phi Delta Kappa, Inc. Each year the poll attempts to deal with issues of greatest concern both to educators and to the public. New as well as trend questions are included in this and every survey.

To insure that the survey would embrace the most important issues in the field of education, Phi Delta Kappa organized a meeting of various leaders in the field of education to discuss their ideas, evaluate proposed questions, and suggest new questions for the survey.

We wish to thank all those who contributed their ideas to this survey.

Research Procedure

The Sample. The sample used in this survey embraced a total of 1,515 adults (18 years of age and older). It is described as a modified probability sample of the United States. Personal, in-home interviewing was conducted in all areas of the U.S. and in all types of communities. A description of the sample can be obtained from Phi Delta Kappa.

Time of Interviewing. The fieldwork for this study was carried out during the period of 18-27 May 1984.

The Report. In the tables that follow, the heading "Nonpublic School Parents" includes parents of students who attend parochial schools and parents of students who attend private or independent schools.

Due allowance must be made for statistical variation, especially in the case of findings for small groups in which relatively few respondents were interviewed, e.g., nonpublic school parents.

The findings of this report apply only to the U.S. as a whole and not to individual communities. Local surveys, using the same questions, can be conducted to determine how local areas compare with national norms.

Summary of Findings

Americans are more favorably disposed toward the public schools today than at any time in the last decade. In this year's survey, more Americans (42%) grade their local schools A or B for their performance than at any time since 1976 — with an 11-point increase just since last year. Virtually the same dramatic increase occurs among the parents of public school children — with a 10% rise since last year in the percentage giving the local schools an A or B rating.

Americans have also become significantly more favorably disposed toward public school teachers and administrators. In 1981, 39% gave teachers a grade of A or B, whereas today the figure is 50%. Moreover, the A or B grades given to principals and administrators have risen from 36% to 47% during this same three-year period.

A final indicator that reveals an increase in favorable feelings toward the schools is the public's increased willingness to pay the price for public education. The percentage of Americans who say that they would be willing to pay more taxes for education has risen from 30% to 41%.

Americans continue to feel that public education contributes more to national strength than either industrial might or military power. More than eight in 10 say that developing the best educational system in the world will be "very important" in determining America's future strength, compared to 70% who favor developing the best industrial production system and only 45% who favor developing the strongest military force.

The American public is divided in its support for the various recommendations proposed in the recently published reports concerning U.S. education. The public strongly favors 1) increasing the amount of schoolwork and homework in both elementary and high school, 2) basing all grade promotions on examinations, and 3) employing nationally standardized tests for high school diplomas. Support for each of these proposals has increased in recent years.

Americans also support, by wide margins, the ideas of career ladders for teachers and state board teacher examinations in every subject. To a lesser degree, the public feels that salaries for teachers are too low; Americans support higher pay for teachers where shortages exist, including mathematics, science, technical subjects, vocational training, and other critical areas.

Americans give top priority to the traditional "basics" — math and English — as has been the case since these annual surveys were initiated; there is virtually unanimous agreement that these courses should be required of all high school students — both college-bound and non-college-bound. Several of the so-called "new basics" (i.e., science and computer science) are considered less important, though both have recorded gains since 1981, particularly computer science. Similarly, vocational training as a requirement for non-college-bound students has registered substantial gains. The issue of foreign language as a requirement for college-bound students, however, has made little progress in recent years. The number of Americans who feel that extracurricular activities are very important to a young person's education has dropped from 45% in 1978 to 31% today.

The public appears to be unwilling to make some of the necessary sacrifices or commitments to help implement some of the recommendations of the school reform reports. Americans are opposed to extended school years or longer school days, which would provide the time for additional schooling. (Support for both ideas has increased somewhat in the last few years, however.) Furthermore, nonparents as well as parents oppose by a 2-1 margin the tougher college admission standards that are the logical extension of stricter standards at the elementary and high school levels.

Although teachers oppose merit pay as a means of rewarding outstanding teaching performance by a margin of roughly 2-1, the public (including parents and nonparents) *favors* the idea by about 3-1. Among the half of the population who are familiar with merit pay, support rises to roughly 4-1.

Approximately seven Americans in 10 favor school prayer — one of the most controversial issues facing the public schools today. At the same time, though the survey question omitted the word *voluntary*, a separate Gallup Poll measuring support for *voluntary* prayer shows some decline in support for the proposal.

Although Americans have tended to favor Ronald Reagan as President over Walter Mondale, they feel that Mondale would be more likely than Reagan — by 42% to 34% — to improve the quality of education. In addition, 66% of Americans say that they would be more likely to vote for a candidate who favored increased federal spending for education; only 22% say that they would be less likely to vote for such a candidate.

The American public continues to regard discipline as the most important problem facing the public schools; about one-fourth of Americans cite discipline as the predominant problem, as they have done for more than a decade. Our analysis indicates that this is probably an outcome of the public's exaggerated perceptions of specific disciplinary problems that occur in the schools — especially when these findings are compared to the testimony of those most likely to know the actual situation, the teachers. Half of the American public feels that drugs are used in the local schools "most of the time" or "fairly often." About one-third of the public feels that theft of money or personal property, drinking of alcoholic beverages, theft of school property, and carrying of knives or other weapons occur "most of the time" or "fairly often."

MONITORING MEASURES

Education in America's Future

The American public is strongly in favor of developing the best educational system in the world. In fact, U.S. citizens believe — as they did in 1982, when this question was first asked — that education will be more important in determining America's place in the world 25 years from now than our industrial system or our military might.

The question:

> **In determining America's strength in the future — say, 25 years from now — how important do you feel each of the following factors will be — very important, fairly important, not too important, or not at all important?**

	Very Important %	Fairly Important %	Not Too Important %	Not At All Important %	Don't Know %
Developing the best educational system in the world	82	13	2	1	2
Developing the most efficient industrial production system in the world	70	23	3	1	3
Building the strongest military force in the world	45	36	13	3	3

	Those responding very important 1984 %	1982 %
Developing the best educational system in the world	82	84
Developing the most efficient industrial production system in the world	70	66
Building the strongest military force in the world	45	47

1984 Rating of the Public Schools

The downward trend in the public's rating of the public schools recorded in these surveys during the last decade has ended. This year, 42% of those interviewed gave an A or B rating to the public schools in their communities, up sharply from 31% in 1983. Not since 1976 have these ratings been so high.

The higher rating given the schools this year may have resulted from two developments. First, the reports of the national commissions that have examined schooling in America have caused widespread debate concerning the quality of public education. Citizens have taken a closer look at their own schools and presumably found them better than they had previously believed. Also, many schools have heeded the criticisms made in the reports and have instituted reforms in their educational programs.

It is noteworthy that parents also give their schools a higher rating this year: 52% A or B, as opposed to 42% in 1983.

The question:

> **Students are often given the grades A,B,C,D, and FAIL to denote the quality of their work. Suppose the *public* schools themselves, in this community, were graded in the same way. What grade would you give the public schools here — A,B,C,D, or FAIL?**

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
A rating	10	8	15	4
B rating	32	31	37	33
C rating	35	35	32	42
D rating	11	10	12	16
FAIL	4	5	3	4
Don't know	8	11	1	1

Ratings Given The Local Public Schools	National Totals 1984 %	1983 %	1982 %	1981 %	1980 %	1979 %	1978 %	1977 %	1976 %
A rating	10	6	8	9	10	8	9	11	13
B rating	32	25	29	27	25	26	27	26	29
C rating	35	32	33	34	29	30	30	26	28
D rating	11	13	14	13	12	11	11	11	10
FAIL	4	7	5	7	6	7	8	5	6
Don't know	8	17	11	10	18	18	15	19	14

Further breakdowns:

	A %	B %	C %	D %	FAIL %	Don't Know %
NATIONAL TOTALS	**10**	**32**	**35**	**11**	**4**	**8**
Sex						
Men	9	33	34	11	5	8
Women	10	32	36	11	3	8
Race						
White	10	33	34	11	4	8
Nonwhite	11	26	38	10	6	9
Age						
18 - 29 years	7	27	43	13	5	5
30 - 49 years	10	33	37	11	4	5
50 and over	11	35	27	9	5	13
Community Size						
1 million and over	9	29	37	12	5	8
500,000 - 999,999	5	34	37	16	3	5
50,000 - 499,999	9	29	34	14	6	8
2,500 - 49,999	8	43	31	6	3	9
Under 2,500	13	34	31	7	5	10
Central city	6	27	38	15	7	7
Education						
Grade school	14	27	29	8	6	17
High school	8	33	35	12	5	7
College	10	33	36	12	3	6
Region						
East	9	30	37	13	5	6
Midwest	13	37	30	8	4	8
South	8	35	33	10	5	9
West	9	25	40	14	4	8

Rating of Public Schools Nationally

This year's survey also shows an upward trend in the public's rating of the public schools nationally. But, as the ratings indicate, respondents continue to give schools in their own communities higher marks than they do the public schools nationally.

The question:

How about the public schools in the nation as a whole? What grade would you give the public schools nationally — A,B,C,D, or FAIL?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
A rating	2	2	3	4
B rating	23	24	21	19
C rating	49	47	52	52
D rating	11	10	13	15
FAIL	4	4	2	4
Don't know	11	13	9	6

Public Schools in the Nation

	1984 %	1983 %	1982 %	1981 %
A rating	2	2	2	2
B rating	23	17	20	18
C rating	49	38	44	43
D rating	11	16	15	15
FAIL	4	6	4	6
Don't know	11	21	15	16

Rating of Teachers in the Local Public Schools

The 1984 survey indicates that the public has increasing respect for the teachers in the local schools. Half of all respondents give teachers an A or B rating. This is considerably higher than the rating given to teachers in the 1981 survey.

The highest ratings go to teachers in small communities — those with a population under 2,500. The lowest ratings go to teachers in the central cities, where the teaching problems are greatest.

Respondents living in the Midwest give their teachers a slightly higher rating than do citizens living in other areas of the U.S.

The question:

Now, what grade would you give the teachers in the public schools in this community?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
A rating	13	13	15	6
B rating	37	35	43	34
C rating	31	31	29	42
D rating	7	6	8	9
FAIL	3	3	3	1
Don't know	9	12	2	8

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1981 %
A rating	13	11
B rating	37	28
C rating	31	31
D rating	7	9
FAIL	3	6
Don't know	9	15

Further breakdowns:

	A %	B %	C %	D %	FAIL %	Don't Know %
NATIONAL TOTALS	**13**	**37**	**31**	**7**	**3**	**9**
Sex						
Men	12	38	31	7	3	9
Women	14	37	31	6	3	9
Race						
White	13	38	30	7	3	9
Nonwhite	13	33	33	6	3	12
Age						
18 - 29 years	11	33	38	7	4	7
30 - 49 years	13	39	32	8	2	6
50 and over	15	39	24	6	2	14
Community Size						
1 million and over	12	35	35	6	3	9
500,000 - 999,999	17	38	25	10	2	8
50,000 - 499,999	9	37	33	8	2	11
2,500 - 49,999	15	39	27	5	4	10
Under 2,500	17	41	19	5	5	13
Central city	9	34	36	9	3	9
Education						
Grade school	13	36	21	7	4	19
High school	13	34	34	7	4	8
College	13	42	29	7	1	8
Region						
East	11	40	31	6	5	7
Midwest	16	41	27	5	2	9
South	13	34	33	8	2	10
West	11	34	33	8	3	11

Rating of Principals and Administrators In the Local Public Schools

The ratings given to school principals and other administrators are somewhat similar to those given to teachers. As in the case of teachers, the ratings in the 1984 survey are appreciably higher than those in the 1981 survey.

The question:

Now, what grade would you give the principals and administrators in the local public schools in this community?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
A rating	13	12	18	5
B rating	34	32	36	42
C rating	29	30	27	27
D rating	8	7	10	13
FAIL	5	5	5	6
Don't know	11	14	4	7

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1981 %
A rating	13	10
B rating	34	26
C rating	29	28
D rating	8	12
FAIL	5	9
Don't know	11	15

Rating of the School Board In This Community

This year's survey, for the first time, rates school boards on the same scale as that employed to rate the schools, teachers, administrators, and parents.

Understandably, those who have little contact with the public schools say that they do not know enough about their local school boards to assign a rating. Parents with children now enrolled in either public or nonpublic schools rate school boards only slightly lower than they rate the schools themselves. The highest rating is given by respondents who have children now enrolled in the public schools.

The question:

Now, what grade would you give the school board in this community?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
A rating	9	9	11	5
B rating	32	31	33	33
C rating	29	27	29	39
D rating	11	10	14	14
FAIL	6	6	8	5
Don't know	13	17	5	4

Rating Given to Parents of Students In the Public Schools

Parents of children now attending the public schools are not too pleased with the way public school parents are bringing up their children. In fact, they give themselves, collectively, lower marks for the way they are doing their job than they give teachers and school administrators.

Only 39% give parents a grade of A or B. This contrasts with a figure of 58% for teachers and 54% for principals and other school administrators.

Parents with children attending nonpublic schools give parents of public school students even lower grades. Only 29% give public school parents an A or B rating; 26% give them a D or FAIL rating.

The question:

Now, what grade would you give the parents of students in the local public schools for bringing up their children?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
A rating	7	6	9	6
B rating	26	25	30	23
C rating	36	36	35	40
D rating	16	15	19	16
FAIL	6	6	5	10
Don't know	9	12	2	5

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1981* %
A rating	7	5
B rating	26	24
C rating	36	36
D rating	16	16
FAIL	6	11
Don't know	9	8

Tax Increases to Support The Public Schools

Since the spring of 1983, when the National Commission on Excellence in Education presented its report, a slight increase has been registered in the percentage of citizens who favor a tax increase in situations where the schools say that they need much more money.

The percentage of public school parents who favor such a tax increase has risen from 48% in 1983 to 54% today, while the percentage of those opposed has dropped from 45% to 38%.

Those respondents who have attended college are most in favor of tax increases. When sections of the U.S. are compared, residents of the western states are found to be most in favor of raising taxes to help the schools.

The question:

Suppose the local public schools said they needed much more money. As you feel at this time, would you vote to raise taxes for this purpose, or would you vote against raising taxes for this purpose?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
For raise in taxes	41	37	54	42
Against raise in taxes	47	50	38	51
Don't know	12	13	8	7

Financial Support of the Public Schools

NATIONAL TOTALS	Favor Raising Taxes %	Opposed to Raising Taxes %	Don't Know %
1984 survey	41	47	12
1983 survey	39	52	9
1981 survey	30	60	10

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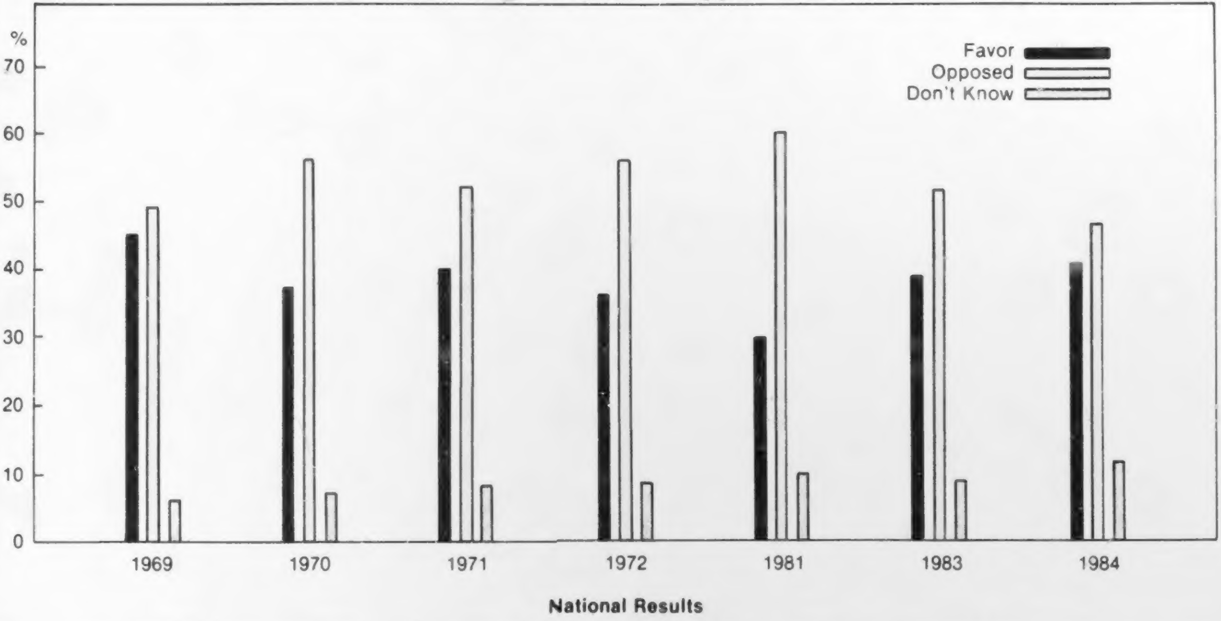
*The wording of the question in the 1981 survey was: "What grade would you give parents in this community for the job they are doing in raising their children to be self-disciplined and responsible young people — A,B,C,D, or FAIL?"

Would You Vote to Raise Taxes to Support the Public Schools?



Financial Support of the Public Schools

NATIONAL TOTALS	Favor Raising Taxes %	Opposed to Raising Taxes %	Don't Know %
1972 survey	36	56	8
1971 survey	40	52	8
1970 survey	37	56	7
1969 survey	45	49	6

CURRENT EDUCATION ISSUES

Presidential Candidate Perceived to Support Education More

At the time interviewing was conducted for this survey, Ronald Reagan held a wide lead in a Presidential trial heat against Walter Mondale (54% to 39%).

Despite this apparent preference for President Reagan, when the public was asked which candidate, Reagan or Mondale, would be more likely to improve the quality of education in the U.S., Mondale was named by a larger percentage than the President — 42% to 34%. Nearly a quarter of the public registered no opinion.

The question:

Which Presidential candidate do you feel would be more likely, as President, to improve the quality of public education in the U.S. — Ronald Reagan or Walter Mondale?

	National Totals %
Walter Mondale	42
Ronald Reagan	34
No opinion	24

Likelihood of Voting for Candidate Supporting Increased Spending for Education

Another measure of the public's willingness to spend more on education is elicited by a question asking whether respondents would be more likely to vote for a Presidential candidate who favored increased spending for education or less likely to vote for such a candidate.

Two-thirds of Americans (66%) would be more likely to vote for the candidate supporting increased spending. Only a third as many (22%) say that they would be less likely to vote for this candidate.

The question:

Would you be more likely or less likely to vote for a candidate who says he would increase federal spending for education?

	National Totals %
More likely	66
Less likely	22
Don't know	12

Increasing the Length of The School Year

Public sentiment in favor of increasing the length of the school year by one month is growing. In the 1982 survey a total of 37% approved of this plan. In 1983 approval reached 40%, and in the present survey the comparable figure is 44%. However, 50% in this year's survey still oppose this plan.

Those who are most in favor of a longer school year are residents of the cities with populations over one million. Most opposed are people living in smaller cities and in towns of 2,500 and under.

Those who have attended college favor a longer school year by a margin of 51% to 45%. Residents of the western states also approve a longer school year by a margin of 59% to 35%.

The question:

In some nations, students attend school as many as 240 days a year as compared to 180 days in the U.S. How do you feel about extending the

Charts by Charmaine Dapena

public school year in this community by 30 days, making the school year about 210 days or 10 months long? Do you favor or oppose this idea?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Favor	44	44	45	46
Oppose	50	49	52	46
No opinion	6	7	3	8

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1983 %	1982 %
Favor	44	40	37
Oppose	50	49	53
No opinion	6	11	10

Further breakdowns:

	Favor %	Oppose %	No Opinion %
NATIONAL TOTALS	44	50	6
Sex			
Men	45	49	6
Women	42	51	7
Race			
White	44	50	6
Nonwhite	46	48	6
Age			
18 - 29 years	38	58	4
30 - 49 years	47	48	5
50 and over	45	46	9
Community Size			
1 million and over	52	42	6
500,000 - 999,999	48	49	3
50,000 - 499,999	42	50	8
2,500 - 49,999	39	56	5
Under 2,500	41	54	5
Central city	52	42	6
Education			
Grade school	34	53	13
High school	41	53	6
College	51	45	4
Region			
East	45	49	6
Midwest	37	55	8
South	39	55	6
West	59	35	6

Extending the School Day by One Hour

Although this year's survey findings indicate that the public is slightly more in favor of increasing the length of the school day by one hour than in 1982, a majority remain opposed.

Residents of the western states and the largest cities most strongly favor the longer school day. Residents of the Midwest are the most opposed.

The question:

How do you feel about extending the school day in the schools in this community by one hour? Do you favor or oppose this idea?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Favor	42	42	41	38
Oppose	52	51	56	58
No opinion	6	7	3	4

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1983 %	1982 %
Favor	42	41	37
Oppose	52	48	55
No opinion	6	11	8

Further breakdowns:

	Favor %	Oppose %	No Opinion %
NATIONAL TOTALS	42	52	6
Sex			
Men	42	52	6
Women	41	53	6
Race			
White	42	53	5
Nonwhite	40	52	8
Age			
18 - 29 years	32	65	3
30 - 49 years	43	52	5
50 and over	48	44	8
Community Size			
1 million and over	49	45	6
500,000 - 999,999	34	59	7
50,000 - 499,999	37	57	6
2,500 - 49,999	39	55	6
Under 2,500	46	48	6
Central city	45	48	7
Education			
Grade school	42	44	14
High school	40	55	5
College	45	51	4
Region			
East	46	49	5
Midwest	34	60	6
South	37	57	6
West	53	42	5

Amount of Schoolwork Required of Elementary and High School Students

All segments of the U.S. population agree that students in elementary schools and high schools are not made to work hard enough in school or on homework. This opinion has remained fairly constant in three surveys, the first in 1975.

Only 5% of those interviewed in this year's survey think that students are made to work too hard in elementary school, and only 4% think students in high school are made to work too hard. By contrast, 59% say that students are not required to work hard enough in elementary school, and 67% say that they are not required to work hard enough in high school.

Perhaps the best judges of whether students are being given enough schoolwork to do in school and at home are the parents of these students. Parents agree that their children are not being required to work hard enough. Only 7% of parents with children now enrolled in the public schools say that children in elementary school are required to work too hard; 54% say that they are not required to work hard enough. In the case of high school students, 5% of parents with children enrolled in public schools say that children are required to work too hard; 62% say that they are not required to work hard enough.

The question:

In general, do you think *elementary* schoolchildren in the public schools here are made to work too hard in school and on homework or not hard enough?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Too hard	5	5	7	4
Not hard enough	59	60	54	56
About right amount	24	20	34	30
Don't know	12	15	5	10

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1983 %	1975 %
Too hard	5	4	5
Not hard enough	59	61	49
About right amount	24	19	28
Don't know	12	16	18

The question:

What about students in the public *high schools* here — in general, are they required to work too hard or not hard enough?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Too hard	4	4	5	-
Not hard enough	67	69	62	69
About right amount	18	15	25	22
Don't know	11	12	8	9

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1983 %	1975 %
Too hard	4	3	3
Not hard enough	67	65	54
About right amount	18	12	22
Don't know	11	20	21

Subjects the Public Would Require

Mathematics and English head the list of subjects the public would require of high school students who plan to attend college; mathematics was mentioned by 96% of respondents, and English was mentioned by 94%.

In addition, a large majority would require history/U.S. government and science. Slightly fewer, but still a majority, would require courses in business, foreign language, and health education.

For *non*-college-bound students, the public would also require math and English and by virtually the same percentages as for those planning to go to college. Somewhat fewer respondents feel that history and science should be required of non-college-bound students, and far fewer favor a foreign language requirement.

Not surprisingly, a much larger percentage of Americans feel that vocational training should be required for non-college-bound students than for those planning to go to college. Similarly, business as a required course is favored by a slightly larger percentage for non-college-bound students.

Support for computer science as a required course — for both college- and non-college-bound students — has dramatically increased from 43% to 68% in just three years. Although support for a science requirement for non-college-bound students has risen only marginally, support for a science requirement for those planning to go to college has risen from 76% to 84% since 1981. On the other hand, support for a foreign language for college-bound students has made little progress in the past three years.

The questions:

Would you look over this card, which lists high school subjects. If you were the one to decide, what subjects would you require every public high school student who *plans to go on to college* to take?

What about those public high school students who do *not plan to go to college* when they graduate? Which courses would you require them to take?

	Should Be Required	
	For Those Planning To Go to College %	For Those Not Planning to Go To College %
Mathematics	96	92
English	94	90
History/U.S. government	84	71
Science	84	61
Business	68	76
Foreign language	57	19
Health education	52	50
Physical education	43	44
Vocational training	37	83
Art	24	18
Music	22	18

	Should Be Required					
	For Those Planning To Go to College			For Those Not Planning to Go To College		
	1984 %	1983 %	1981 %	1984 %	1983 %	1981 %
Mathematics	96	92	94	92	87	91
English	94	88	91	90	83	89
History/U.S. government	84	78	83	71	63	71
Science	84	76	76	61	53	58
Business	68	55	60	76	65	75
Foreign language	57	50	54	19	19	21
Health education	52	43	47	50	42	46
Physical education	43	41	44	44	40	43
Vocational training	37	32	34	83	74	64
Art	24	19	28	18	16	20
Music	22	18	26	18	16	20

Special Areas of Instruction That Should Be Required

The public would like the public schools to provide instruction in many aspects of modern life, in addition to the subjects traditionally included in the school curriculum. Heading the list of these special areas of instruction is drug abuse, followed by alcohol abuse. Large majorities of the population would also require instruction in such areas as driver education, computer training, race relations, and the dangers of nuclear waste.

The question:

In addition to regular courses, high schools offer instruction in other areas. As I read off these areas, one at a time, would you tell me whether you feel this instruction should be required or should not be required for all high school students.

	Should Be Required %	Should Not Be Required %	No Opinion %
Drug abuse	82	15	3
Alcohol abuse	79	18	3

	Should Be Required %	Should Not Be Required %	No Opinion %
Driver education	73	25	2
Computer training	68	28	4
Race relations	65	29	6
Dangers of nuclear waste	61	34	5
Communism/socialism	57	37	6
Parenting/parent training	55	39	6
Dangers of nuclear war	51	43	6

	Should Be Required		
	1984 %	1983 %	1981 %
Drug abuse	82	81	82
Alcohol abuse	79	76	78
Driver education	73	72	71
Computer training	68	72	43
Race relations*	65	56	-
Dangers of nuclear waste*	61	56	-
Communism/socialism*	57	51	-
Parenting/parent training	55	58	64
Dangers of nuclear war*	51	46	-

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*These topics were not included in the 1981 survey.

Importance of Extracurricular Activities

About three-quarters of the U.S. public (77%) feel that extracurricular activities are either "very important" or "fairly important" to a young person's education. At the same time, however, there has been a decline in the percentage of those who say that extracurricular activities are "very important" — from 45% in 1978 to 31% in 1984. During this same period there has been an increase in the percentage of the public who say that extracurricular activities are "not too important" — from 9% to 18%. This decrease in support may reflect, to some extent, the heavy emphasis placed on the academic curriculum by the various national reports on the state of education.

Better-educated Americans are more inclined to feel that extracurricular activities are important. A total of 84% of those who have attended college say that these activities are "very important" or "fairly important," while only 68% of those whose education ended with grade school regard such activities as important.

The question:

I'd like your opinion about extracurricular activities such as the school band, dramatics, sports, and the school paper. How important are these to a young person's education — very important, fairly important, not too important, or not at all important?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Very important	31	31	32	30
Fairly important	46	45	48	52
Not too important	18	18	16	14
Not at all important	4	4	3	3
No opinion	1	2	1	1

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1978 %
Very important	31	45
Fairly important	46	40
Not too important	18	9
Not at all important	4	4
No opinion	1	2

National Test for Graduation

The American public shows remarkable unanimity in favoring a standard nationwide test for graduation from high school. Only in communities under 2,500 is sentiment fairly closely divided on this proposal.

This question was first asked of a national cross section of adults in 1958, and the idea was favored at that time by a margin of 50% to 39%. When the same question was asked in 1981, 69% favored the proposal, 26% opposed it, and 5% had no opinion. Roughly the same results were found in this year's survey: 65% in favor, 29% opposed, and 6% with no opinion.

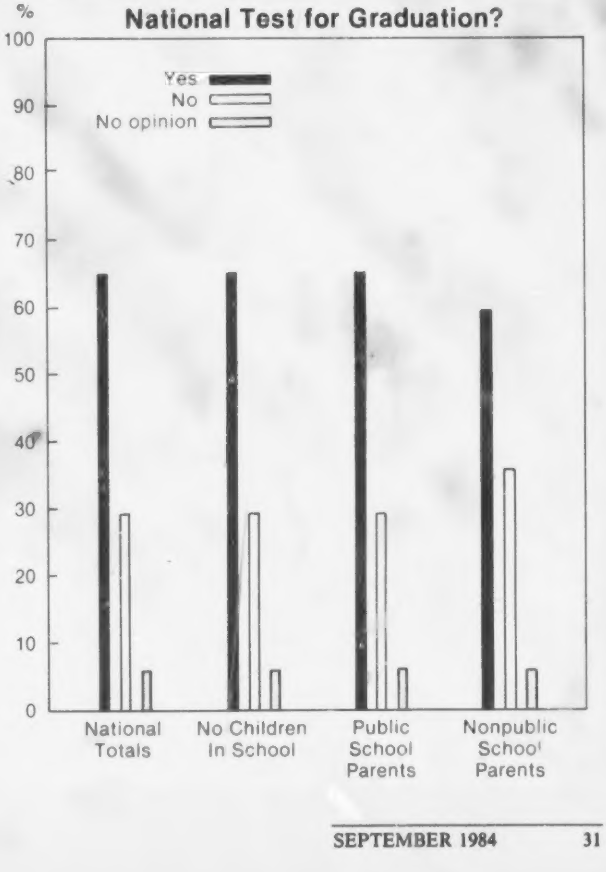
Many nations require students to pass standard examinations for graduation; in the United States, however, because of varying local conditions, such a plan has never been adopted. Nevertheless, the public appears to see merit in such a policy.

The question:

Should all high school students in the United States be required to pass a standard nationwide examination in order to get a high school diploma?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Yes	65	65	65	59
No	29	29	29	35
No opinion	6	6	6	6

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1981 %	1976 %	1958 %
Yes	65	69	65	50
No	29	26	31	39
No opinion	6	5	4	11



Raising College Entrance Requirements

Many educators have argued that raising the entrance requirements of colleges and universities would be an effective way of inducing the public schools to raise their standards. However, this proposal fails to win the approval of the public.

Analysis of the opinions of various groups in the population reveals that all major groups oppose this suggestion, especially those most concerned: parents of children now attending elementary or high school. Even those who have attended college vote against the idea.

The question:

Do you feel that four-year colleges and universities should raise their entrance requirements or not?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Yes	27	28	24	21
No	59	57	64	61
No opinion	14	15	12	18

State Board Examinations for Teachers

Survey findings reveal widespread agreement that prospective teachers should be required to pass state board examinations to prove their knowledge in the subjects they plan to teach.

More than eight in every 10 respondents have favored this policy in the three surveys in which this same question has been asked: 1979, 1981, and 1984.

The question:

In addition to meeting college requirements for a teacher's certificate, should those who want to become teachers also be required to pass a state board examination to prove their knowledge in the subjects they will teach before they are hired?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Yes	89	89	89	92
No	7	7	8	7
No opinion	4	4	3	1

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1981 %	1979 %
Yes	89	84	85
No	7	11	9
No opinion	4	5	6

Career Ladder for Teachers

The proposal to adopt a career ladder for public school teachers that is grounded in classroom effectiveness, with accompanying salary increases, is favored by a substantial majority (75%) of the public. In fact, by approximately the same percentages, all segments of the population agree that this is a good plan.

The question:

It has been suggested that public schools adopt a career ladder for teachers, based primarily upon demonstrated effectiveness in the classroom, with salaries increasing accordingly. Would you approve or disapprove if such a plan were adopted by the public schools in this community?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Approve	75	74	77	79
Disapprove	16	16	16	16
No opinion	9	10	7	5

Teachers' Salaries in This Community

The American public tends to feel that teachers' salaries are too low. Interestingly, this view is held by those who do not have children enrolled in the public schools, as well as by those who do.

On the other hand, those who have no children in the local schools are more likely to vote against tax increases and bond issues for the schools than those who have children enrolled.

During the last 15 years, attitudes concerning teachers' salaries have shown little change. The weight of opinion throughout this period has been that salaries are too low. This opinion is particularly prevalent among more highly educated citizens and among those who live in the southern states, where teacher salaries tend to be lowest.

The question:

Do you think salaries in this community for teachers are too high, too low, or just about right?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Too high	7	6	8	7
Too low	37	37	38	33
Just about right	41	40	41	47
No opinion	15	17	13	13

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1983 %	1981 %	1969 %
Too high	7	8	10	2
Too low	37	35	29	33
About right	41	31	41	43
No opinion	15	26	20	22

NATIONAL TOTALS (with "no opinion" group eliminated)	1984 %	1983 %	1981 %	1969 %
Too high	8	11	13	3
Too low	44	47	36	42
About right	48	42	51	55

Paying Math and Science Teachers More

Slightly more respondents in this year's survey favor than oppose paying higher wages to teachers of science, math, and technical and vocational subjects because of the shortage that now exists in these subject areas. However, only in the largest cities does the percentage reach 50% or higher.

When the same question was asked in 1983, national totals were 50% in favor, 35% opposed, and 15% don't know.

The question:

Today there is a shortage of teachers in science, math, technical subjects, and vocational subjects. If your local schools needed teachers in these subjects, would you favor or oppose paying them higher wages than teachers of other subjects?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Favor	48	46	52	56
Oppose	43	43	42	37
No opinion	9	11	6	7

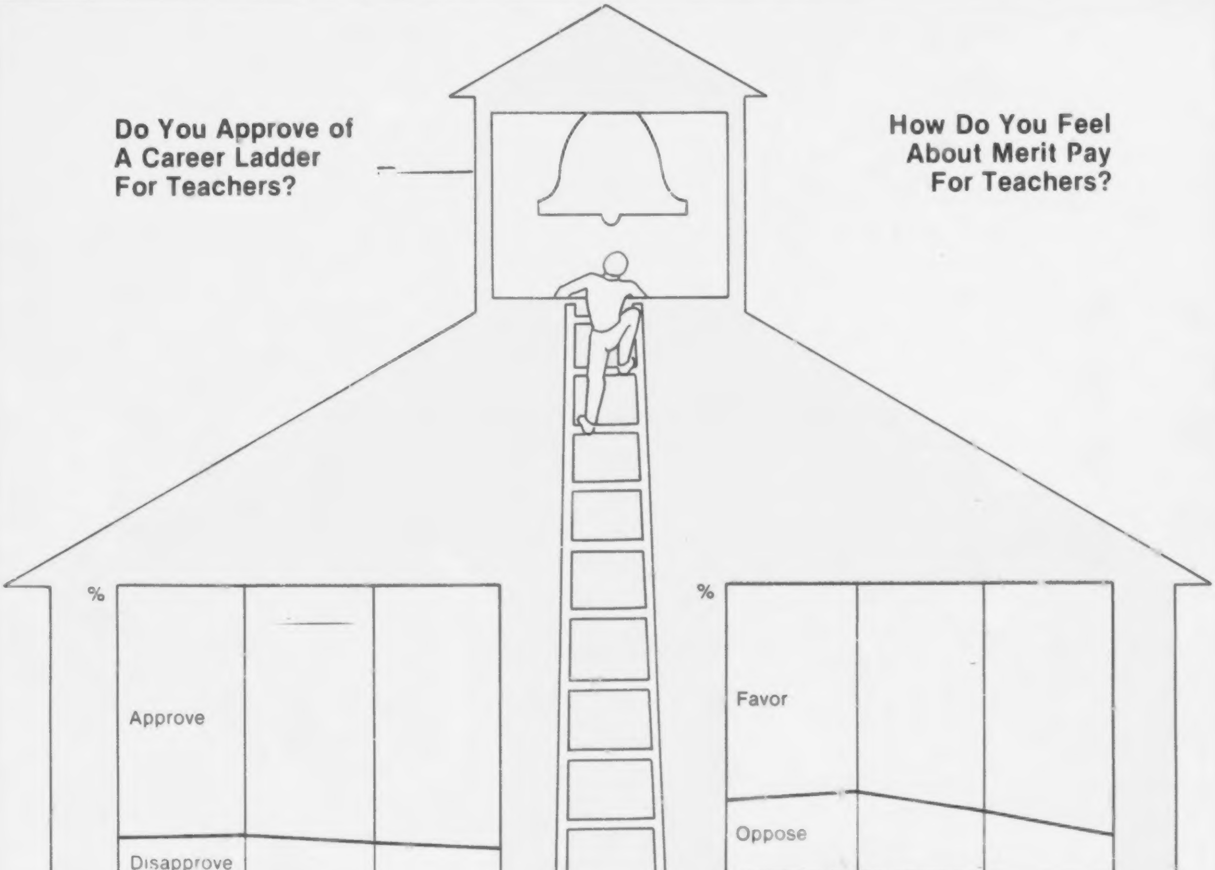
NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1981 %
Favor	48	50
Oppose	43	35
No opinion	9	15

Attitudes Toward Merit Pay Programs

Although the issue of merit pay for teachers seems to have provoked a great deal of discussion recently, when this survey was conducted only half of those interviewed said that they had heard or read anything about such programs.

When those who said that they were aware of merit pay proposals were asked whether they generally favored or opposed the idea, three-fourths (76%) said that they approved of it, 19% were opposed, and 5% had no opinion. For the total sample, the percentage who approve of the idea of merit pay is 65%, with 22% opposed and 13% having no opinion.

In 1970 and again in 1983 a merit pay question was asked in this form: "Should each teacher be paid on the basis of the quality of his or her work, or should all teachers be paid on a standard-scale basis?" In 1970, 58% said that teachers should be paid according to "quality of work," 36% on a "standard scale," and 6% said "don't know." Comparable figures for 1983 were 61%, 31%, and 8%.



The question:

Some states have recently adopted merit pay programs which would provide additional pay for outstanding teacher performance. Have you heard or read anything about these programs?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Yes	51	50	55	56
No	45	46	42	42
Don't know	4	4	3	2

The question:

How do you, yourself, feel about the idea of merit pay for teachers? In general, do you favor or oppose it?

Total Sample	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Favor	65	63	69	75
Oppose	22	23	20	14
No opinion	13	14	11	11

Those Who Have Heard or Read About Merit Pay for Teachers	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Favor	76	75	77	81
Oppose	19	20	19	10
No opinion	5	5	4	9

Criteria to Be Used in Awarding Merit Pay

One of the greatest hurdles facing merit pay is the difficulty of agreeing on the criteria to be used in deciding which teachers should receive extra pay. A list of possible criteria was compiled. To determine which criteria are most acceptable to the public, respondents were asked in the case of each criterion whether they thought it should or should not be used to decide which teachers should be given additional pay.

Seven criteria are listed below in order of their acceptability to the public. Improvement achieved by students as measured by standardized tests is rated highest. Virtually the same rating is given to the evaluations of administrators. Gaining almost the same high approval is an advanced degree, such as the master's or Ph.D. Evaluation by other teachers, length of teaching experience, students' evaluations, and parents' opinions have support, but not majority support.

The question:

This card lists possible criteria for giving additional pay to teachers for special merit. As I read off each one by letter, please tell me if you think it should or should not be used to determine which teachers should receive merit pay.

	Should Be Criterion %	Should Not Be Criterion %	No Opinion %
Academic achievement or improvement of students (as measured by standardized tests)	68	25	7
Administrators' evaluations	67	26	7
An advanced degree, such as a master's or Ph.D.	66	27	7
Evaluation by other teachers in the system	48	42	10
Length of teaching experience	48	47	5
Students' evaluations	45	47	8
Parents' opinions	36	55	9

Teaching as a Career

Although teaching as a career has lost favor steadily during the last 15 years, the results from this year's survey indicate that the downward trend may have ended. In 1969, 75% of parents said that they would like to see one of their children enter public school teaching as a career. In 1983 only 45% said this.

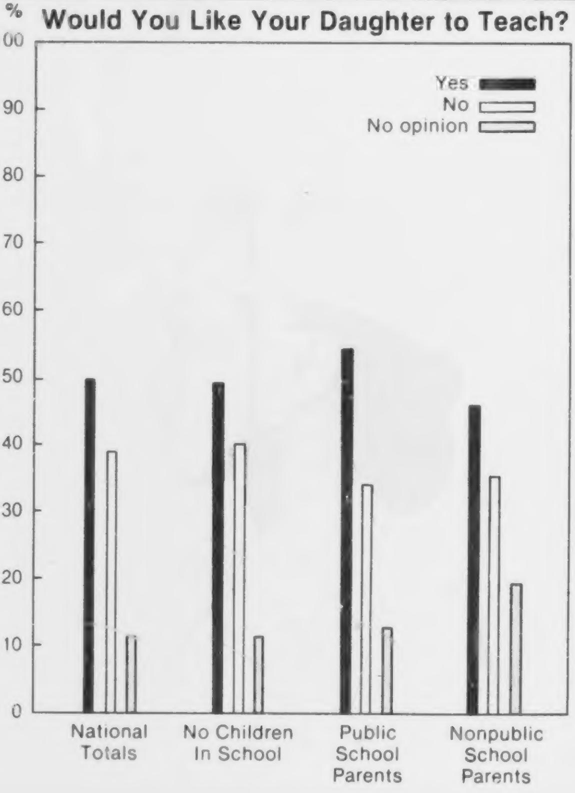
In the 1984 survey, the question differed from that asked in 1969 and 1983, which dealt with "a child of yours." The question this year asked respondents first if they would like a daughter to take up teaching as a career; the same question was then asked about a son.

Fully 50% of those interviewed said that they would like a daughter of theirs to take up teaching in the public schools as a career. Slightly fewer (46%) said that they would like a son of theirs to make a career of teaching.

The question:

Would you like to have a *daughter* of yours take up teaching in the public schools as a career?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Yes	50	49	54	46
No	39	40	34	35
No opinion	11	11	12	19


Would You Like Your Daughter to Teach?

The question:

Would you like to have a *son* of yours take up teaching in the public schools as a career?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Yes	46	45	51	41
No	42	43	37	40
No opinion	12	12	12	19

	Daughter		Son	
NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1981 %	1984 %	1981 %
Yes	50	46	46	43
No	39	44	42	47
Don't know	11	10	12	10

Prayer in the Public Schools

Prayer in the public schools is an issue that has been hotly debated in recent years. A majority of those interviewed in this year's survey favor a constitutional amendment that would allow school prayer. However, the least support for such an amendment is found among the best-educated citizens and among the youngest adult age group — and these two groups will play the greatest role in determining future trends in public attitudes.

The question:

Have you heard or read about a proposed Amendment to the U.S. Constitution that would allow prayer in the public schools?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Yes	93	93	95	93
No	6	7	4	7
Not sure	1	*	1	-

---

*Less than one-half of 1%.

The question:

Do you favor or oppose this proposed Amendment?

Those Aware of Amendment	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Favor	69	68	73	68
Oppose	24	25	21	21
Don't know	7	7	6	11

The question:

How strongly do you favor/oppose this Amendment — very strongly, fairly strongly, or not at all strongly?

Those Who Favor the Amendment	National Totals %
Very strongly	61
Fairly strongly	34
Not at all strongly	5
Can't say	*

Those Who Oppose the Amendment	National Totals %
Very strongly	49
Fairly strongly	38
Not at all strongly	12
Can't say	1

---

*Less than one-half of 1%.

Nongraded Schools

The idea that a student should be allowed to progress through the school system at his or her own speed and without regard to grade level wins majority support, though acceptance of this plan by the public is less than in earlier surveys.

The nongraded concept is more popular with better-educated citizens, with younger citizens, and with parents of children in nonpublic schools. It is most popular in the large cities and least popular in the small communities of the U.S.

The question:

Should a student be able to progress through the school system at his own speed and without regard to the usual grade level? This would mean that he might study seventh-grade math, but only fifth-grade English. Would you favor or oppose such a plan in the local schools?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Favor	54	51	58	63
Oppose	39	40	36	33
No opinion	7	9	6	4

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1980 %	1975 %	1972 %
Favor	54	62	64	71
Oppose	39	30	28	22
No opinion	7	8	8	7

Course Credit for Community Service

Widespread approval is found for a proposal to award course credit to high school juniors and seniors for community service, such as working in a hospital or recreation center, beautifying parks, or helping law enforcement officers.

This proposal was first included in this survey series in 1978. At that time, 87% said that they would like such a plan to be adopted in their own community. In this year's survey, 79% approve of this plan. However, the approval rating among parents of children now attending the public schools remains about the same (86%) as in the earlier survey.

Every group in the population gives a high approval rating to this proposal, which was strongly endorsed in Ernest Boyer's 1983 report, *High School*, an important study by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

The question:

A plan has been suggested to enable all juniors and seniors in high school to perform some kind of community service for course credit — such as working in a hospital or recreation center, beauti-

fying parks, or helping law enforcement officers. Would you like to have such a plan adopted in this community, or not?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Yes, would like plan	79	77	86	78
No, would not	16	17	12	16
No opinion	5	6	2	6

NATIONAL TOTALS	1984 %	1978 %
Yes, would like plan	79	87
No, would not	16	8
No opinion	5	5

PERENNIAL ISSUES

Major Problems Confronting the Public Schools in 1984

Although discipline continues to be cited most frequently by respondents as the top problem with which their local schools must contend, parents who now have children enrolled in the public schools mention this problem significantly less often than in 1983.

In the 1983 survey, 29% of the parents interviewed named "discipline" as the biggest problem of their schools; 23% mentioned discipline in this year's survey. Since parents of children now in school are likely to be best informed about discipline, their views must be given special credence.

The top five problems found in the 1983 study are also the top five problems cited in 1984. Next to discipline, "use of drugs" and "poor curriculum/poor standards" are mentioned most often. Tied for fourth place are "lack of proper financial support" and "difficulty getting good teachers."

The question:

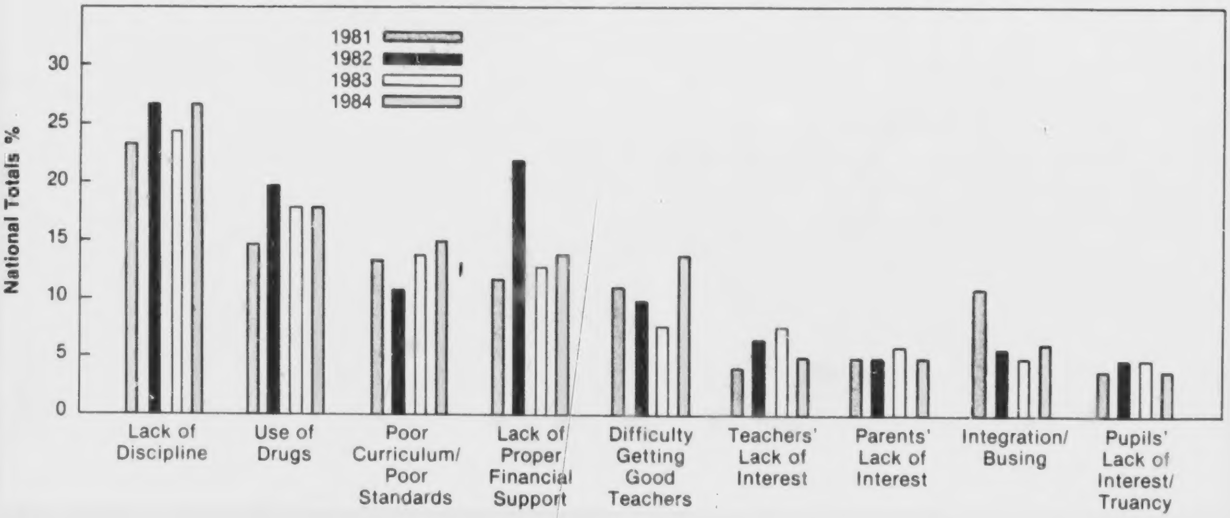
What do you think are the biggest problems with which the *public* schools in this community must deal?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Lack of discipline	27	28	23	36
Use of drugs	18	18	20	10
Poor curriculum/poor standards	15	16	14	18
Lack of proper financial support	14	12	17	13
Difficulty getting good teachers	14	13	15	13
Integration/busing	6	.7	3	4
Teachers' lack of interest	5	4	6	7
Parents' lack of interest	5	5	6	7
Low teacher salaries	4	3	6	5
Pupils' lack of interest/truancy	4	4	4	4
Drinking/alcoholism	4	3	5	5
Large schools/overcrowding	4	3	4	8
Lack of respect for teachers/other students	3	3	4	2
Problems with administration	3	3	2	4
Crime/vandalism	3	3	2	2
Mismanagement of funds	2	1	2	5
Lack of proper facilities	2	2	1	1
Moral standards	1	1	2	2
Teachers' strikes	1	1	1	2
Communication problems	1	1	2	1
Parental involvement with school activities	1	*	1	1
Lack of needed teachers	1	1	1	-
Fighting	1	*	2	-
Government interference	1	1	1	1
There are no problems	1	1	2	1
Miscellaneous	4	4	5	7
Don't know/no answer	10	12	4	5

(Figures add to more than 100% because of multiple answers.)

*Less than one-half of 1%.

Biggest Problems Confronting the Public Schools



The Public's Perceptions About Discipline

One way to measure attitudes regarding discipline is to ask respondents how serious a problem discipline is in their schools. Not surprisingly, those most closely connected with schools — the parents of students — hold different views from non-parents about discipline and about many other problems with which the local schools must deal. Thus 29% of parents with children enrolled in the public schools say that the discipline problem is "very serious." In answer to the same question, 36% of those who have no children in the public schools say that the discipline problem is "very serious."

The question:

How serious a problem would you say discipline is in the public schools in this community — very serious, fairly serious, not too serious, or not at all serious?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Very serious	34	36	29	32
Fairly serious	34	34	35	38
Not too serious	22	18	29	25
Not at all serious	4	3	6	3
No opinion	6	9	1	2

One of the perennial problems facing the public schools concerns public relations. The media are prone to limit their coverage of news of the schools to what journalists describe as "spot" news — happenings or events that take place in the schools. Unfortunately, these stories usually concern vandalism, drugs, absenteeism, theft of school property, attacks on teachers, and the like. "Good news" is difficult to find and to report.

Consequently, the public receives a distorted picture of schools and tends to regard them as blackboard jungles. Evidence of this comes from a question that asked respondents to estimate how often certain disciplinary problems occur in their local schools.

Analysis reveals that the perception of schools as blackboard jungles is likely to result from an exaggerated idea of the specific disciplinary problems that occur in a school system; this is certainly true when the perceptions of the public are compared with those of teachers, who are most likely to know the actual situation.

For example, as many of half of the respondents in this year's survey feel that drugs are used in their local schools "most of the time" or "fairly often." Similarly, about one-third of the public feel that theft of money or personal property, drinking of alcoholic beverages, theft of school property, and carrying of knives or other weapons occur "most of the time" or "fairly often."

The question:

As I read off the following problems by letter, would you tell me how often you think each problem occurs in the public schools in this community — just your impression?

NATIONAL TOTALS	Most of the Time or Fairly Often %	Not Very Often or Almost Never/ Never %	Don't Know %
Schoolwork and homework assignments not completed	64	23	13
Behavior that disrupts class	60	29	11
Skipping classes	56	31	13
Talking back to/disobeying teachers	56	32	12
Truancy/being absent from school	53	36	11
Use of drugs at school	53	33	14
Selling of drugs at school	47	37	16
Sloppy or inappropriate dress	47	42	11
Cheating on tests	46	38	16
Vandalizing of school property	39	49	12
Stealing money or personal property belonging to other students, teachers, or staff	38	46	16
Drinking alcoholic beverages at school	35	50	15
Theft of school property	34	51	15
Carrying of knives, firearms, or other weapons at school	29	55	16
Sexual activity at school	24	57	19
Racial fights between whites, blacks, Hispanics, or other minorities	22	64	14
Taking money or property by force, using weapons or threats	18	66	16
Physical attacks on teachers or staff	15	71	14

The Goals of Education

The goals of education are difficult to separate from the goals of life. It is equally difficult to separate the responsibility of the schools for reaching these goals from that of other institutions in American life.

Nevertheless, this year's survey attempted to obtain some evidence of how the public rates the importance of many suggested goals. The ratings given to the goals listed reveal a pragmatic people who view education primarily as a means to economic success rather than to intellectual development. Near the bottom of the list is the goal of appreciation of the arts and letters, learning as a lifetime program, and participation in the democratic process.

The goals are listed below on the basis of the number of respondents who gave a "10" (the highest rating) to the goal in question.

The question:

I am going to read a list of possible goals of education. I would like you to rate the importance of each goal on a scale of zero to 10. A zero means a goal is not at all important and should not be part of the public school program. A 10 means a goal is the most important goal — before all others. A rating between zero and 10 means you consider the goal to be somewhere in between in importance.

	Highest Rating			
	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
To develop the ability to speak and write correctly	68	65	74	71
To develop standards of what is "right" and "wrong"	64	63	68	61

	Highest Rating			
	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
To develop an understanding about different kinds of jobs and careers, including their requirements and rewards	56	54	60	54
To develop skills needed to get jobs for those not planning to go to college	54	52	59	61
To develop the ability to use mathematics for everyday problems	54	52	56	60
To encourage respect for law and order, for obeying the rules of society	52	52	54	53
To help students make realistic plans for what they will do after high school graduation	52	50	56	43
To develop the ability to live in a complex and changing world	51	50	57	42
To develop the desire to excel	51	49	56	51
To develop the ability to think — creatively, objectively, analytically	51	49	55	58
To help develop good work habits, the ability to organize one's thoughts, the ability to concentrate	48	46	52	42
To prepare for college those who plan to attend college	46	43	53	57
To develop the ability to deal with adult responsibilities and problems, i.e., sex, marriage, parenting, personal finances, alcohol and drug abuse	46	44	49	43
To gain an understanding of science and technology	45	43	50	51
To help students get good/high-paying jobs	45	43	51	43
To help students overcome personal problems	45	42	51	45
To develop the ability to understand and use computers	43	41	47	51
To develop the ability to get along with different kinds of people	42	42	43	40
To gain knowledge about the world of today and yesterday (history, geography, civics)	42	40	46	39
To encourage the desire to continue learning throughout one's life	41	40	45	39
To develop respect for and understanding of other races, religions, nations, and cultures	39	39	39	39
To develop an appreciation for and participation in the arts, music, literature, theater, etc.	35	33	39	37
To develop an understanding of democracy and to promote participation in the political process	33	32	35	32
To develop an appreciation of the "good" things in life	32	33	32	24
To promote physical development through sports programs	20	19	23	19

Who Should Determine the Curriculum?

If the public were given the right to decide who should have the greatest influence in deciding what is taught in the public schools, the top choices would be the local school board and parents; the public would give the state government and the federal government relatively little say in this matter.

This view is in sharp contrast to the policies followed in most nations, where the national government typically sets the curriculum.

The question:

In your opinion, who should have the *greatest* influence in deciding what is taught in the public schools here — the federal government, the state government, the local school board, local public school teachers, or parents of public school children?

	National Totals %	No Children In School %	Public School Parents %	Nonpublic School Parents %
Local school board	27	29	25	29
Parents	24	22	30	23
State government	17	18	14	16
Teachers	11	11	11	12
Federal government	9	9	9	4
Don't know	12	11	11	16

Deletions

The larger number of questions in this year's poll prevented us from publishing further breakdowns for many questions, as well as responses to one question regarding automatic promotion. (Asked if children should be promoted from grade to grade *only* if they can pass examinations, 71% said yes, 25% said no, and 4% expressed no opinion.)

How to Order Reprints

The minimum order is 25 copies of the poll for $7.50. Additional copies are 20 cents each. This price includes postage for parcel post delivery. Where possible, enclose a check or money order.

If faster delivery is desired, do not include a remittance with your order. You will be billed at the above rates plus any additional cost involved in the method of delivery.

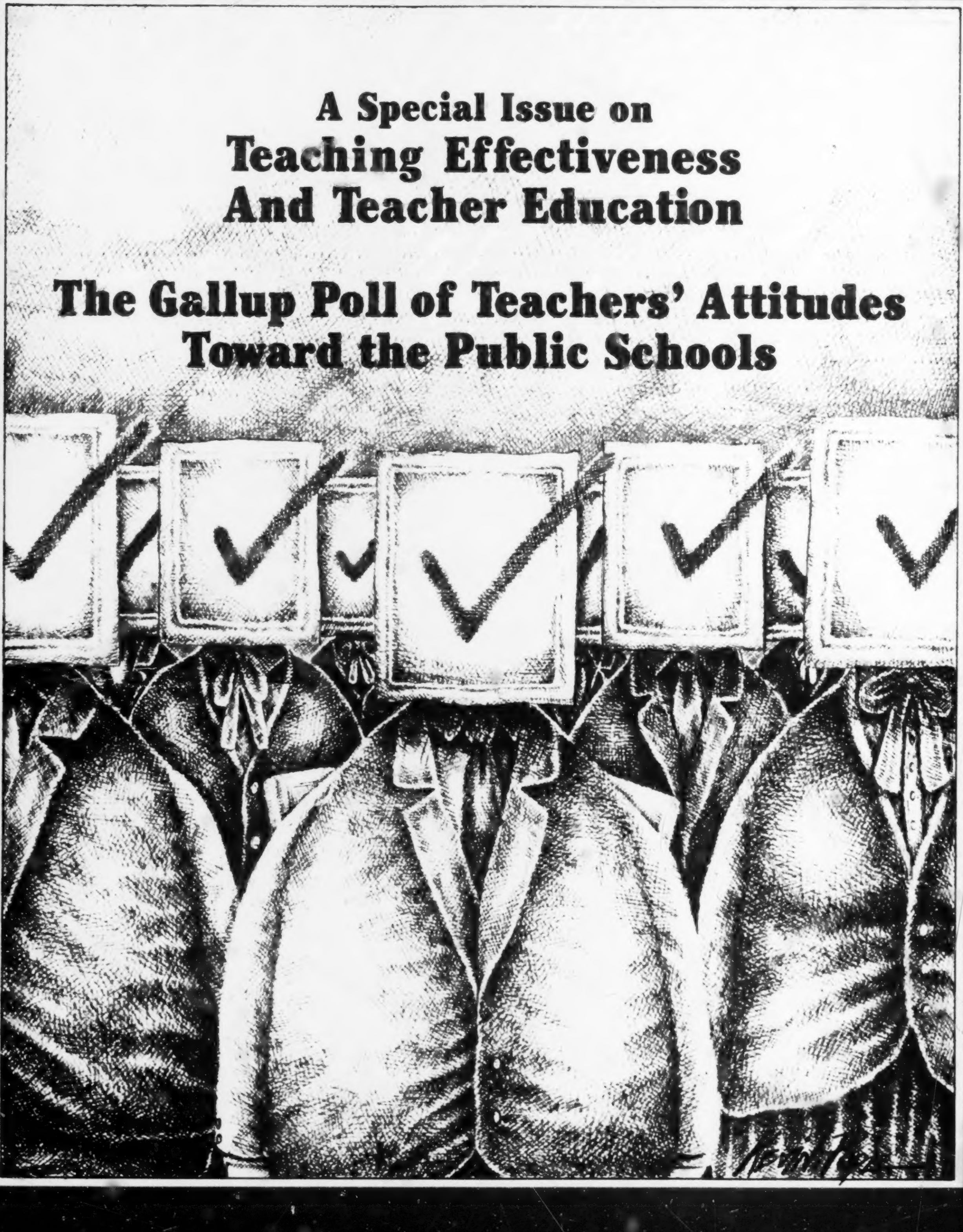
In October Phi Delta Kappa will publish a 15-year (1969-1984) compilation of the Gallup polls on education. In this volume the poll questions are arranged topically rather than chronologically, making it easier to look up poll results on specific topics. *The Gallup Polls of Attitudes Toward Education, 1969-1984: A Topical Summary* can be ordered for $6 each ($5 for PDK members).

Orders for reprints or for the book should be addressed to Phi Delta Kappa, P.O. Box 789, Bloomington, IN 47402. Ph. 812/339-1156.

PHI DELTA

KAPPAN

OCTOBER 1984



A Special Issue on Teaching Effectiveness And Teacher Education

The Gallup Poll of Teachers' Attitudes Toward the Public Schools

Phi Delta
October 1984 • Volume 66 • Number 2
KAPPAN

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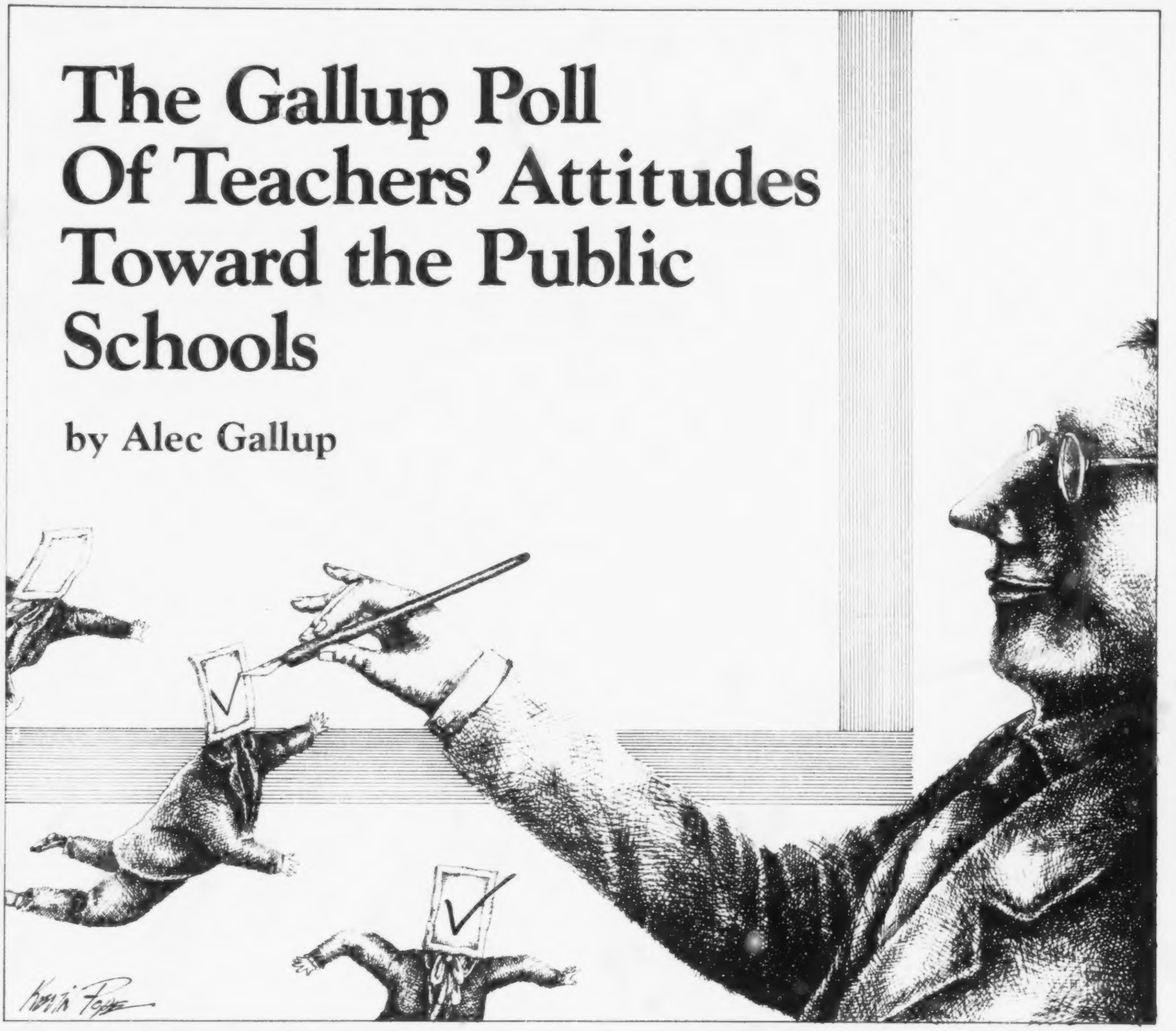
Cover Illustration: Kevin Pope

The Gallup Poll Of Teachers' Attitudes Toward the Public Schools

by Alec Gallup



Purpose of the Study

This is the first installment of the first Gallup/Phi Delta Kappa survey of the attitudes of U.S. teachers toward the public schools. The primary purposes of this survey were to determine teacher attitudes and to establish basepoint or benchmark measurements from which to track opinion trends in subsequent surveys. A secondary purpose was to compare teacher attitudes about key topics with the views of the general public, including parents of children enrolled in the public schools.

Just as with the other Gallup/PDK joint project — the Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools — this poll is valuable in at least two important ways. First, it alerts decision makers to teachers' reactions to a variety of school programs and policies. Second, it serves as a benchmark against which local attitudes can be measured.

Local officials are welcome to use questions asked in this survey. The questions are not copyrighted. Moreover, no limits are placed on the use of information contained in this report, beyond customary credit to source and observance of the canons of accuracy and completeness of quotation.

Funding for this survey was provided by Phi Delta Kappa, Inc. To be sure that the survey would deal with the issues of greatest concern to both educators and the public, Phi Delta Kappa solicited suggestions for questions from a wide range of leaders in the field of education.

The second installment of this survey of teachers will appear in the January 1985 *Kappan*. Some of the topics to be covered in that poll will be teachers' views on the curriculum, on several of the recommendations for education of the various national commissions and task forces, on the desirability of teaching as a profession, and on the effects of teacher unions on education. — The Editors

Research Procedure

The findings of this survey come from mail interviews with a representative sample of U.S. teachers. From a list provided by Market Data Retrieval, a sample of 2,000 teachers was selected to reflect the total national population of teachers. The sample was stratified proportionately by region and by teaching level.

Questionnaires were mailed to the 2,000 teachers between 30 April and 9 May 1984. Six questionnaires were undeliverable, producing an effective mailing of

Illustration by Kevin Pope

Nine teachers in 10 state that their salaries are too low. And almost nine in 10 say that low pay is the reason why teachers are leaving the profession.

1,994 questionnaires. Of these, 813 (41%) were completed and returned.

To insure that the attitudes of nonrespondents were not significantly different from those of respondents, a telephone survey was conducted with a sample of 100 teachers who had not answered the mail survey. The results of the telephone survey showed that the sample of nonrespondents to the mail survey closely paralleled the sample of respondents — both in terms of attitudes and in terms of socioeconomic and demographic characteristics.

Summary of Findings

Attitudes of American teachers are markedly uniform. Very few differences in attitudes are apparent among the nine subgroups in the teacher population by which the data were analyzed. Only in the case of elementary and high school teachers do differences in views emerge — and then only rarely.

At the same time, the attitudes of teachers and the public are frequently at odds. Of the approximately 30 issues in the two installments of this teacher poll on which the opinion of the public is also available, teachers and the public agree on one-third of the issues and disagree on two-thirds.

Grading the schools. American teachers give high marks to U.S. public schools. Asked to grade the local public schools, using the traditional grading system, two-thirds of the teachers award the local schools either an A or a B. When asked to grade the school in which they themselves teach, an even higher percentage (72%) award an A or a B.

Grading teachers, administrators, school boards, and parents. The same favorable attitude is also apparent when teachers are asked to rate other members of the teaching profession; however, teachers are less positive about the performance of administrators in the public schools and about local school boards. Almost eight teachers in 10 (78%) would award their peers an A or a B, but substantially fewer would give administrators and school board members top grades. Teachers' grades for parents fall far below those they give to teachers, administrators, and school board members. Asked to grade the job that local parents are doing in bringing up their children, only one teacher in five gives parents an A or a B.

The U.S. public rates the performance of teachers considerably lower than the teachers rate themselves; only 50% of the public gives teachers a grade of A or B. (The public gives principals and administrators about the same rating as it gives teachers.) On the other hand, the public rates school boards somewhat higher than teachers do — 41% of the public give school boards an A or a B, but only 29% of the teachers give them top grades. Thirty-three percent of the public give parents an A or a B — the lowest percentage for any group rated, but still a good deal higher than the grades assigned to parents by teachers.

Teacher compensation. A major source of teacher dissatisfaction involves what teachers perceive as poor compensation. For example, nine teachers in 10 state that their salaries are too low. And almost nine in 10 say that low pay is the reason why teachers are leaving the profession. Similarly, when asked for ways to reduce school costs, only 5% react favorably to the idea of cutting teacher salaries. The public tends to agree — but by a significantly smaller percentage — that teachers are paid too little.

Merit pay. U.S. teachers, including all major subgroups in the teacher population, oppose the idea of merit pay by a 2-1 ratio. Teachers' objections to merit pay center on two main points: 1) the difficulties in evaluation (i.e., determining who should receive merit pay) and 2) the morale problems that might be created if merit pay plans were put into effect.

At the same time, however, fully three-quarters of U.S. teachers admit that some teachers in their own schools are outstanding enough to warrant merit pay. Asked to estimate the percentage of teachers in their own schools who deserve merit pay, teachers who favor merit pay say about 33%.

If merit pay were adopted by the local schools, teachers would want fellow teachers, administrators, or educators from outside the district — rather than noneducators — to decide who should receive it. Only about one-fifth of teachers feel that either students or parents should be involved in this decision.

Similarly, teachers feel that the criteria to be used in selecting candidates for merit pay should be 1) an evaluation by educators, either teachers or administrators, and 2) an advanced degree or years of experience. A relatively small percentage of teachers feel that students' academic achievement or improvement, students' evaluations of teachers, or parents' opinions should influence the awarding of merit pay.

The views of the public provide a rather dramatic contrast to the attitudes of teachers. The public favors merit pay for teachers by a ratio of 4-1 (76% to 19%). The public also feels that the most important criterion upon which to base merit pay should be the academic achievement or improvement of students as measured by standardized tests (68%). Only 39% of teachers agree.

Attitudes concerning some recommendations of the national commissions and task forces on education. The attitudes of U.S. teachers are mixed regarding the recommendations for improving the public schools that have been made by the recent wave of national commissions and task forces on education. By wide margins, teachers favor higher salaries for teachers and state board examinations to prove teachers' knowledge of subject matter. By a somewhat smaller margin, they favor tougher college entrance requirements. Unlike teachers, the public opposes tougher admissions standards for colleges and universities.

School discipline. U.S. teachers have a much different perception of the problem of discipline in the public schools than does the public. Teachers feel that the most important problem facing local public schools —

Teachers feel that the most crucial problem facing local public schools — named by 31% of the respondents — is lack of parental support, not lack of discipline.

named by 31% of the respondents — is lack of parental support, not lack of discipline. Only about one teacher in six (16%) says that discipline is a very serious problem in the local schools.

In addition, nonacademic disciplinary problems — e.g., incomplete assignments, cheating, talking back to teachers, and truancy — are mentioned frequently by teachers as occurring "most of the time" or "fairly often." A relatively small percentage of teachers say that criminal activities — i.e., vandalizing or theft of property, use or selling of drugs or alcohol, carrying of weapons, physical attacks on students or staff — occur in their schools "most of the time" or "fairly often."

The public's perceptions of discipline in the schools differ considerably from those of teachers, however. The public has named discipline as the most important problem facing the public schools since the Gallup surveys of attitudes toward the schools began in 1969. One-third of the public in 1984 — compared to 16% of teachers — believe that disciplinary problems in the local schools are very serious. Most significant, however, the public perceives violence and criminal activities as much more prevalent in the schools than teachers do. Far larger percentages of the public than of teachers, for example, say that a variety of these kinds of problems occur "most of the time" or "fairly often."

Teachers blame disciplinary problems on outside influences — specifically, the courts, lack of respect for authority, and especially lack of discipline in the home, which is mentioned by virtually all teachers (94%). Only about one-third of the teachers feel that teachers themselves are at fault.

The public agrees, although by a smaller percentage than teachers, that the principal source of disciplinary problems is lack of discipline in the home. On the other hand, the public is more prone to blame teachers for disciplinary problems.

Testing. Teachers are divided on the value of public school testing programs. A slight majority oppose exams for grade promotion, and an even smaller majority favor exams for high school graduation. Two-thirds of those who approve of an exam for high school graduation feel that the results should be released to the public — and compared with results from other schools that serve the same racial and socioeconomic mix.

The public's view differs markedly from that of teachers on the issue of testing. Although the public approves of an exam for high school graduation by a wide 7-3 ratio, only half of those who favor the exam also favor the release of results to the public and approve of comparing the results with those of other schools.

School prayer. Elementary teachers favor voluntary school prayer by a 2-1 ratio. High school teachers are much more closely divided on this issue than are elementary school teachers. The public approves of school prayer by a wider margin, 4-1.

Politics. Asked which Presidential candidate would be more likely to improve the quality of education in the U.S., teachers name Walter Mondale by a ratio of nearly 2-1, 42% to 25%. The U.S. public also feels that Mondale would be more likely than Reagan to improve American education, but Mondale's lead over Reagan on this issue is not quite as great with the public (42% to 34%) as with teachers.

Teachers Grade the Public Schools

American teachers give high marks to the U.S. public school system. Asked to grade the public schools in their community using the traditional A-through-F grading system, two-thirds of American teachers give the schools a mark of A or B. Only 4% give the schools a D, and 1% give them a failing grade. When asked to grade the schools in which they themselves teach, the percentage of teachers who give the schools an A or a B rises to 72%.

The question:

Students are often given the grades A, B, C, D, and FAIL to denote the quality of their work. Suppose the public schools themselves, in this community, were graded in the same way. What grade would you give the public schools here? How about the public school in which you teach? What grade would you give your own school?

	Local Schools %	Your Own School %
A rating	12	21
B rating	52	51
C rating	27	20
D rating	4	4
FAIL	1	2
Don't know	4	2

Teachers Grade Teachers, Administrators, School Boards, and Parents

American teachers are even more positive about the performance of teachers than they are about the performance of the schools, with 78% awarding teachers an A or a B. However, this highly favorable attitude does not carry over to the performance of others involved in local education — principals and other administrators, local school boards, or the parents of students attending the local schools.

Only 44% of teachers feel that the job done by principals and other administrators in the local schools deserves either an A or a B. Fewer than one teacher in three (29%) would award the local school board either an A or a B, with 13% giving it a failing grade.

At the bottom of the list are the parents of local schoolchildren, who receive an A or a B for their efforts from only one teacher in five (21%). A larger percentage of teachers (31%) give parents a D or an F.

The question:

What grade would you give the teachers in the local public schools? The administrators in the local public schools? The local school board?

What grade would you give the parents of students in the local public schools for bringing up their children?

	Teachers %	Administrators %	Local School Board %	Parents %
A rating	18	10	4	2
B rating	60	34	25	19
C rating	17	34	36	45
D rating	2	15	19	24
FAIL	*	5	13	7
Don't know	3	2	3	3

Teacher Opinion vs. Public Opinion

Although the grades the public gave the schools in 1984 were the highest recorded in a decade, they were still much lower than the grades the teachers give the schools. Almost two-thirds of American teachers (64%) give the local schools an A or a B; only about four in 10 (42%) of the general population did so.

Differences between the public's and the teachers' views also show up in the grades these groups award to teachers, administrators, local school boards, and parents. Although the public grades teachers somewhat higher than it grades the local schools, only 50% of the public give teachers a grade of A or B, a substantially lower figure than the 78% of teachers who give their peers an A or a B.

Although teachers grade administrators considerably lower than they do their peers, the U.S. public rates administrators about the same as it does teachers. On the other hand, the U.S. public grades both school boards and parents higher than American teachers do. Forty-one percent of the public give the school board an A or a B; only 29% of teachers do so.

Both the public and teachers rate parents the lowest. Only one-third of the public and 21% of teachers give parents a grade of A or B.

	Local Schools	
	All Teachers %	U.S. Public %
A rating	12	10
B rating	52	32
C rating	27	35
D rating	4	11
FAIL	1	4
Don't know	4	8

Teachers Grade Teacher Education

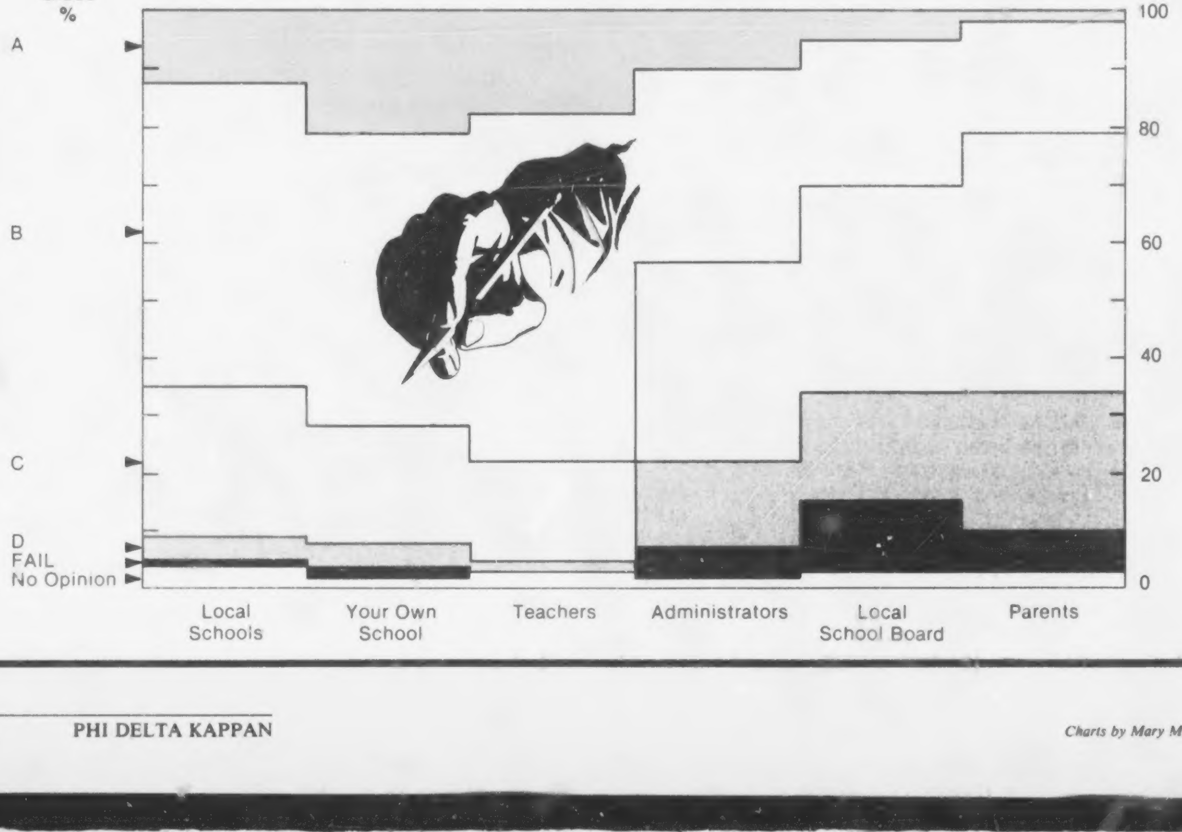
About half of U.S. teachers in every major subgroup of the teacher population would give the teacher education program they attended a grade of A or B. Collectively, 10% of teachers would award their teacher training programs a grade of D, and 6% would give their teacher training programs a failing grade.

The question:

What grade would you give the teacher education training you received?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %
A rating	14	14	14
B rating	35	37	34
C rating	33	34	31
D rating	10	8	11
FAIL	6	4	8
Don't know	2	3	2

Teachers Grade the Schools and Those Who Have a Stake in Them



Charts by Mary Miller

Presidential Candidates

Asked which Presidential candidate, Ronald Reagan or Walter Mondale, would be more likely to improve the quality of education in the U.S., American teachers name Mondale by a ratio of nearly 2-1, 42% to 25%. About one-third say that there would be no difference between the candidates or have no opinion.

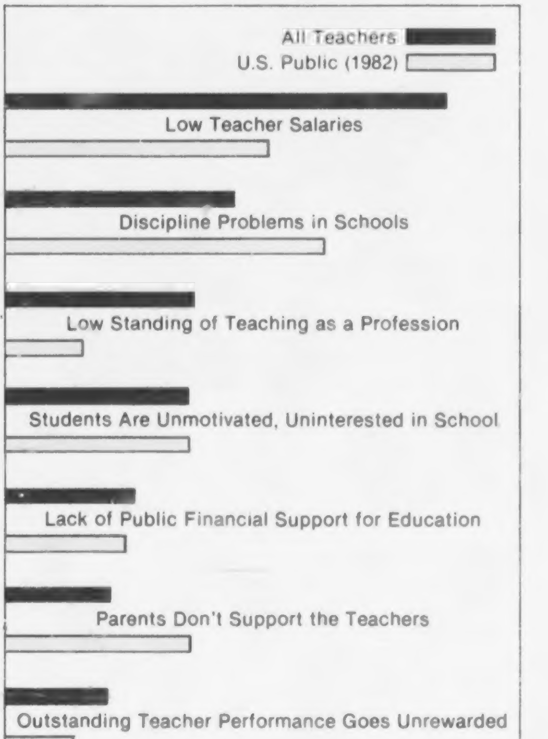
Although the American public also feels that Mondale would be more likely than Reagan to improve American education, the ratio is much smaller (42% to 34%).

The question:

Which Presidential candidate do you feel would be more likely, as President, to improve the quality of public education in the U.S. — Ronald Reagan or Walter Mondale?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Walter Mondale	42	41	44	42
Ronald Reagan	25	25	25	34
No difference/ no opinion	33	34	31	24

Reasons for Leaving Teaching



School Prayer

Elementary school teachers favor voluntary school prayer by roughly a 2-1 ratio. High school teachers are much more closely divided on the issue, favoring school prayer by 47% to 37%.

The American public approves of school prayer by a wider ratio (4-1) than teachers. At the same time, however, there has been some decline in public support for school prayer in recent years.

The question:

Do you favor or oppose a proposed Amendment to the U.S. Constitution that would allow voluntary prayer in the public schools?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Yes	52	56	47	74
No	33	30	37	19
Don't know	15	14	16	7

Attracting and Retaining Good Teachers

Slightly more than one-third of U.S. teachers (37%) report that their schools have had difficulty in attracting good teachers, and about half (48%) say that their schools have had difficulty in retaining good teachers. In both instances the percentage is higher for high school than for elementary teachers.

The question:

Does the school in which you teach have difficulty in getting good teachers?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %
Yes	37	31	45
No	57	65	48
No opinion	6	4	7

The question:

Does the school in which you teach have difficulty in *keeping* good teachers?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %
Yes	48	43	55
No	47	52	39
No opinion	5	5	6

Why Teachers Leave the Profession

Respondents were shown a card listing a number of problems that affect the teaching profession, and they were asked which three problems they feel are the main factors causing teachers to leave their jobs. Low salaries are by far the most frequently cited, with almost nine in 10 teachers (87%) mentioning this reason.

The question:

> **Many public school teachers are leaving the classroom. Here are some reasons that are sometimes given. Which *three* of these do you think are the main reasons why teachers are leaving their jobs?**

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %
Low teacher salaries	87	85	89
Discipline problems in schools	46	49	41
Low standing of teaching as a profession	38	37	38
Students are unmotivated, uninterested in school	37	31	41
Lack of public financial support for education	26	24	28
Parents don't support the teachers	21	25	16
Outstanding teacher performance goes unrewarded	20	16	25
Difficulty of advancement	19	19	19
Parents are not interested in children's progress	11	11	11

(Figures add to more than 100% because of multiple answers.)

Teacher Opinion vs. Public Opinion

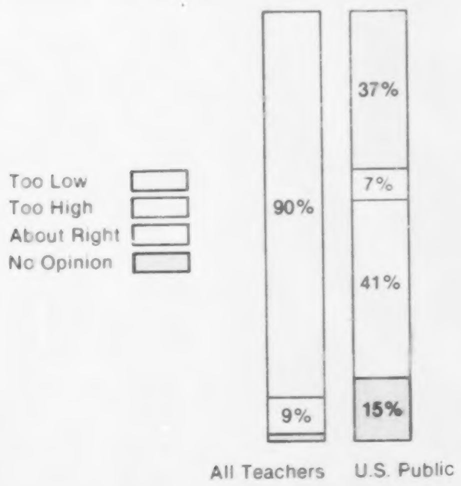
The public, surveyed in 1982, differed from the teachers as to why teachers leave the profession. Only 52% of the public mentioned low teacher salaries as one of the main reasons why teachers leave; 63% cited discipline as one of the main factors.

Paradoxically, the public was much more likely than teachers to see parents' lack of interest in their children's progress as a reason for teachers to leave the profession. Twenty-five percent of the public mentioned this reason, but only 11% of teachers do. Similarly, 37% of the public said that lack of support from parents is one of the factors causing teachers to leave the profession, whereas only 21% of teachers cite this as a reason.

Reasons for Leaving	All Teachers %	U.S. Public (1982) %
Low teacher salaries	87	52
Discipline problems in schools	46	63
Low standing of teaching as a profession	38	15
Students are unmotivated, uninterested in school	37	37
Lack of public financial support for education	26	24
Parent don't support the teachers	21	37
Outstanding teacher performance goes unrewarded	20	13
Difficulty of advancement	19	14
Parents are not interested in children's progress	11	25

(Figures add to more than 100% because of multiple answers.)

Salaries of Teachers



Teacher Compensation

Nine out of 10 teachers say that teacher salaries are too low; virtually none say that teacher salaries are too high.

The question:

> **Do you think salaries for teachers in this community are too high, too low, or just about right?**

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %
Too low	90	89	90
Too high	*	*	*
Just about right	9	10	9
No opinion	1	1	1

*Less than one-half of 1%.

Teacher Opinion vs. Public Opinion

The public is divided almost evenly on the question of whether teacher salaries are too low or about right. Forty-one percent feel that teacher salaries are just about right, and almost as many respondents (37%) say that they are too low. Very few respondents (7%) think teacher salaries are too high.

	All Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Too low	90	37
Too high	*	7
Just about right	9	41
No opinion	1	15

*Less than one-half of 1%.

Differential Pay in Subject Areas With Teacher Shortages

A number of observers have suggested that more pay be given to teachers in areas of critical national need, such as science, mathematics, and vocational/technical subjects. Three-fourths of teachers oppose such a measure. The public is more evenly divided on this

Charts by Mary Mille

issue, with 48% in favor of differential pay and 43% opposed.

The question:

Today there is a shortage of teachers in science, math, technical subjects, and vocational subjects. If your local schools needed teachers in these subjects, would you favor or oppose paying them higher wages than teachers of other subjects?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Favor	21	18	25	48
Oppose	75	80	70	43
No opinion	4	2	5	9

Merit Pay

American teachers oppose the idea of merit pay by a 2-1 ratio, 64% to 32%. This ratio is consistent across all major teacher population subgroups.

The question:

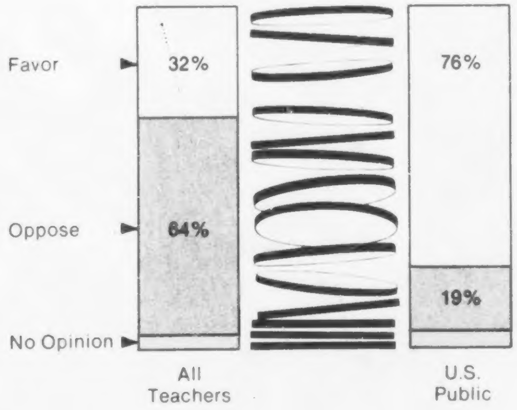
How do you, yourself, feel about the idea of merit pay for teachers? In general, do you favor or oppose it?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %
Favor	32	29	35
Oppose	64	67	62
No opinion	4	4	3

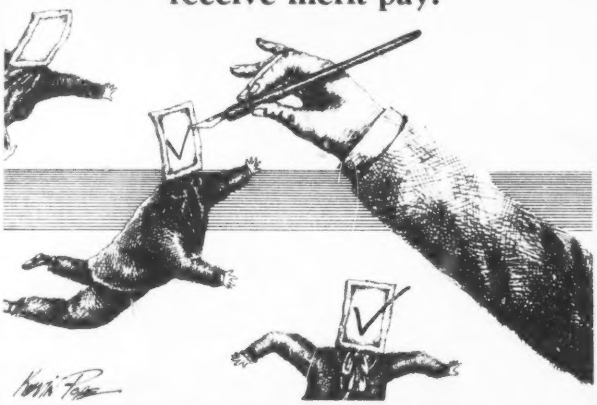
Reasons for Favoring/Opposing Merit Pay

Teachers oppose merit pay for two basic reasons: 1) the difficulty of evaluating teacher performance and 2) the morale problems that merit pay might cause.

Support for Adoption of Merit Pay For Teachers



Almost two-thirds of the teachers say that a committee of teachers should determine which teachers receive merit pay.



About one-fourth of the teacher respondents (23%) say that it would be difficult to give a *fair* evaluation of teaching. Twelve percent say that administrators could not give objective evaluations, and the same percentage say that teacher merit cannot be measured objectively at all.

About 12% of the teachers say that merit pay would create morale problems in their schools, and another 8% say that it would present political problems in the schools.

The question:

Why do you favor/oppose merit pay for teachers?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %
Oppose			
Difficult to give a fair evaluation	23	22	24
Would create problems/ morale problems	12	14	10
Administrators can't evaluate fairly	12	12	13
Political problems	8	9	7
Can't be objectively measured	12	12	12
Other	5	4	5
Favor			
Good teachers would be rewarded	25	23	27
Children would benefit	1	*	1
Other	7	6	8

(Figures add to more than 100 because of multiple answers.)
*Less than one-half of 1%.

What Percentage of Teachers Deserve Merit Pay?

Although U.S. teachers tend to oppose merit pay, three-quarters of them say that some teachers in their own schools deserve merit pay.

The question:

Aside from whether you favor or oppose merit pay, do you feel there are any teachers in the school where you teach who are sufficiently outstanding to warrant merit pay, or not?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %
Yes	76	72	81
No	16	19	11
No opinion	8	9	8

(IF FAVOR MERIT PAY) What percentage of teachers do you feel warrants merit pay?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %
Responses of Those Who Favor Merit Pay			
Under 10%	13	11	16
10% to 19%	23	22	25
20% to 29%	17	15	19
30% to 59%	23	25	20
60% to 99%	17	21	13
No answer	7	6	7
Average	33	36	30

Who Should Determine Which Teachers Receive Merit Pay?

Almost two-thirds of the U.S. teachers (63%) say that a committee of teachers should determine which teachers receive merit pay. Next most frequently mentioned as potential decision maker is the school principal (57%), followed by a committee of outside educators (42%). Only about one teacher in five wants the decision to be made by either students or parents.

The question:

Suppose that your own school were to adopt the merit pay plan. Who, in your opinion, should determine which teachers should be given merit increases?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %
Committee of teachers	63	62	65
School principal	57	60	53
Committee of outside educators	42	42	40
Students	22	18	26
Parents	19	21	17
Other	11	11	11
No one qualified	2	2	3
Don't know	3	3	4

(Figures add to more than 100% because of multiple responses.)

☑ Teacher Opinion vs. Public Opinion ☑

The views of the public differ dramatically from those of teachers on the issue of merit pay. The public favors merit pay for teachers by a ratio of 4-1.

Two-thirds of the public (68%) believe that academic achievement or the improvement of student performance as measured by standardized tests should be one of the criteria used to determine which teachers receive merit pay. Only 39% of the teachers agree. But 66% of the teachers feel that other teachers in the system should be involved in the evaluation of teachers for merit pay, while only 48% of the public agree.

	All Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Favor merit pay	32	76
Oppose merit pay	64	19
No opinion	4	5

Criteria for Awarding Merit Pay	All Teachers (% favoring)	U.S. Public (% favoring)
Administrators' evaluations	73	67
Evaluation by other teachers in the system	66	48
An advanced degree	53	66
Length of teaching experience	47	48
Academic achievement or improvement of students (as measured by standardized tests)	39	68
Students' evaluations	39	45
Parents' opinions	30	36

Major Problems Confronting The Public Schools

U.S. teachers say that the biggest problem confronting the public schools is parents' lack of interest and support (31%). The next most frequently mentioned problems — all cited by about one teacher in five — are lack of proper financial support, lack of interest or truancy on the part of pupils, and lack of discipline.

These responses are fairly consistent across all teacher population subgroups. One difference is that 35% of elementary school teachers mention parents' lack of interest, while only 26% of high school teachers mention this problem. On the other hand, 23% of high school teachers mention pupils' lack of interest or their truancy, while only 17% of elementary teachers do so.

The question:

What do you think are the biggest problems with which the public schools in this community must deal?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Parents' lack of interest/support	31	35	26	5
Lack of proper financial support	21	20	21	14
Pupils' lack of interest/truancy	20	17	23	4
Lack of discipline	19	20	18	27
Problems with administration	10	8	12	3
Poor curriculum/poor standards	7	7	7	15
Use of drugs	5	3	6	18
Low teacher salaries	5	5	5	4
Difficulty getting good teachers	4	3	4	14
Large schools/overcrowding	4	5	2	4
Teachers' lack of interest	4	5	4	5
Lack of respect for teachers/other students	4	4	4	3

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %	U.S. Public %
One-parent households	4	4	4	*
Lack of public support	3	3	4	*
Communication problems	3	4	3	1
Government interference/ regulation	3	2	4	1
Integration/busing	2	2	2	6
Lack of proper facilities	2	2	3	2
School board policies	2	2	2	*
Parental involvement with school activities	2	3	2	1
Mismanagement of funds/ programs	2	3	2	2
Moral standards	2	2	2	1
Drinking/alcoholism	2	2	3	4
Lack of needed teachers	2	2	1	1
Crime/vandalism	1	*	2	3

(Figures add to more than 100% because of multiple answers.)
*Less than one-half of 1%.

How Serious Is the Discipline Problem?

Whereas about one-third of the public (34%) feel that discipline is a very serious problem in the schools, only 16% of the teachers agree. About one-third of both groups see the discipline problem as fairly serious. Nearly half of the teachers see the problem of discipline as not too serious (35%) or not at all serious (14%), but only about a quarter of the public agree with these judgments.

The question:

How serious a problem would you say discipline is in the public schools in your community — very serious, fairly serious, not too serious, or not at all serious?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Very serious	16	17	15	34
Fairly serious	33	29	36	34
Not too serious	35	38	32	22
Not at all serious	14	12	17	4
No opinion	2	4	*	6

*Less than one-half of 1%.

Perceived Incidence of School Problems

Teachers differ markedly from the general public in their judgment of which of the problems confronting the schools are most important. The comparison is especially revealing with regard to criminal activities, which the public feels occur far more frequently than teachers do.

For example, 53% of the public feel that drugs are used at school "most of the time" or "fairly often." Only 17% of teachers agree. Almost half of the public (47%) but only 13% of the teachers think that drugs are sold at school "most of the time" or "fairly often."

About one-third of the public feel that alcoholic beverages are drunk at school "most of the time" or "fairly often," that school property is stolen "most of the time" or "fairly often," and that knives, firearms, and weapons of other kinds are carried at school "most of the time" or "fairly often." Teachers report that these criminal activities take place much less frequently: drinking, 10%; theft of school property, 23%; carrying weapons, 8%. However, teachers and the public are in

Most Important Problems Facing the Public Schools

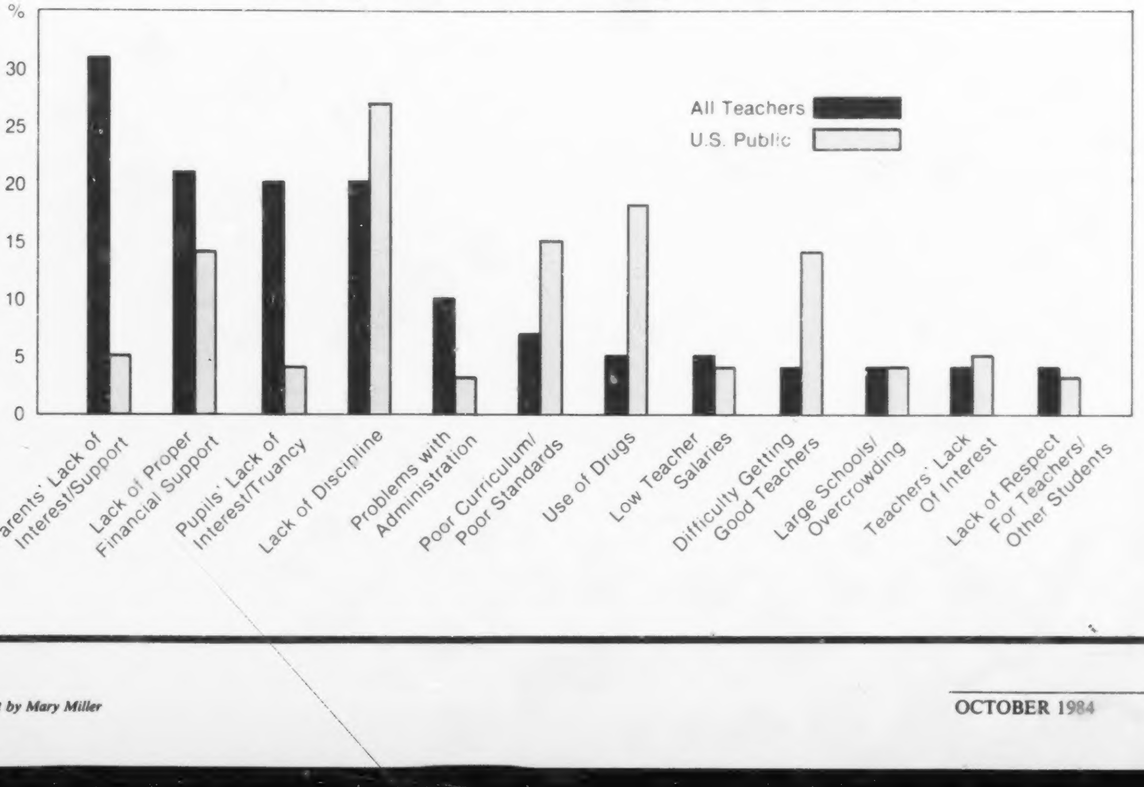


Chart by Mary Miller

closer agreement on how often such disciplinary problems as cheating, not completing homework, truancy, and so on occur.

The question:

About how often do each of the problems listed occur at the school where you teach?

	Respondents Who Say Most of the Time/Fairly Often	
	All Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Schoolwork and homework assignments not completed	76	64
Behavior that disrupts class	47	60
Truancy/being absent from school	47	53
Talking back to, disobeying teachers	43	56
Cheating on tests	40	46
Sloppy or inappropriate dress	37	47
Skipping classes	35	56
Stealing money or personal property belonging to other students, teachers, or staff	32	38
Vandalizing of school property	29	39
Theft of school property	23	34
Use of drugs at school	17	53
Selling of drugs at school	13	47
Drinking alcoholic beverages at school	10	35
Carrying of knives, firearms, or other weapons at school	8	29
Sexual activity at school	8	24
Racial fights between whites, blacks, Hispanics, or other minorities	4	22
Taking money or property by force, using weapons or threats	2	18
Physical attacks on teachers or staff	1	15

Reasons for Discipline Problems

Respondents were shown a list of potential reasons for discipline problems in the schools and asked to select those that they felt best explained why disciplinary problems exist. Teachers look outside the school for reasons to explain the disciplinary problems. For example, more than nine in ten (94%) say that lack of discipline in the home is one important reason for disciplinary problems in school, 74% cite lack of respect for law and authority throughout the society, 66% mention student troublemakers who cannot be removed from school, and 65% say that the courts have made administrators too cautious in dealing with student misbehavior.

The U.S. public tends to agree with teachers that lack of discipline in the home is the main cause of disciplinary problems in the schools. But the public mentions outside influences, including the home, less often than teachers do, and the public is much more likely to say that teachers are in part the cause of disciplinary problems — that teachers do not command respect, that teachers are not properly trained to deal with discipline problems, and that teachers fail to make classroom work interesting.

The question:

Many people say that "discipline" is one of the major problems of the public schools today. Would you please look over this list and check the reasons you think are most important to explain why there is a discipline problem?

	All Teachers %	U.S. Public (1983) %
Lack of discipline in the home	94	72
Lack of respect for law and authority throughout society	74	54
Students who are constant troublemakers often can't be removed from the school	66	42
The courts have made school administrators so cautious they don't deal severely with student misbehavior	65	41
Punishment is too lenient	50	39
Decline in teaching of good manners	48	37
One-parent families	42	26
Viewing television programs that emphasize crime and violence	39	39
Teachers themselves do not command respect	23	36
Teachers who are not properly trained to deal with discipline problems	19	42
Failure on the part of teachers to make classroom work more interesting	11	31

Support for Public School Testing

U.S. teachers are decidedly ambivalent about the merits of standardized achievement tests both for grade promotion and for graduation from high school.

Teachers are opposed to promotion from grade to grade on the basis of examinations; 43% say that they favor such tests, and 52% oppose them. They are more evenly divided on the question of a nationwide examination for high school graduation; 48% favor such a test, while 45% oppose it. Of the 48% who favor an examination for high school graduation, two-thirds feel that the outcomes should be released to the public, and virtually all favor comparing the exam results with those of other schools serving similar clienteles.

The question of testing for grade promotion is one of the few instances in this survey in which we found significant differences of opinion between elementary and high school teachers. Elementary teachers oppose an examination for grade promotion by a ratio of almost 2 to 1, while high school teachers favor promotion on the basis of an examination score by a margin of roughly 5 to 4.

Once again, teachers' attitudes are in stark contrast to those of the general public, which has for many years supported the notion of using standardized tests both for grade-to-grade promotion and for high school graduation. In the 1984 survey of the public's attitudes toward the public schools, the general public supported both of these uses of tests by a margin of about 3 to 1.

The question:

In your opinion, should children be promoted from grade to grade only if they can pass examinations?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Yes	43	33	54	71
No	52	63	40	25
No opinion	5	4	6	4

The question:

Should all high school students in the United States be required to pass a standard nationwide examination in order to get a high school diploma?

	All Teachers %	Elementary Teachers %	High School Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Should be required	48	52	44	65
Should not be required	45	41	50	29
No opinion	7	7	6	6

Remedial Classes or Repeating a Grade

Teachers are opposed to having a student repeat a year's work if that student fails a subject. Three-quarters of the teachers (78%) favor having such a student take special remedial classes in the subject he or she failed; only 13% would prefer having the student repeat the whole year.

In 1978 the public was in virtual agreement with our 1984 sample of teachers on how to treat failing students. Four-fifths of the public would have had such students take special remedial classes rather than repeating the subjects they fail.

The question:

Should students who fail be required to take special remedial classes in the subjects they fail, or should they be required to repeat the whole year's work?

	All Teachers %	U.S. Public (1978) %
Special remedial classes	78	81
Repeat whole year's work	13	14
No opinion	9	5

Raising College Entrance Requirements

Many educators have argued that raising the entrance requirements of colleges and universities would be an effective way of inducing the public schools to raise their standards. Teachers in this survey favor this proposal by a small margin (47% to 39%).

Support for State Board Examinations For Teachers

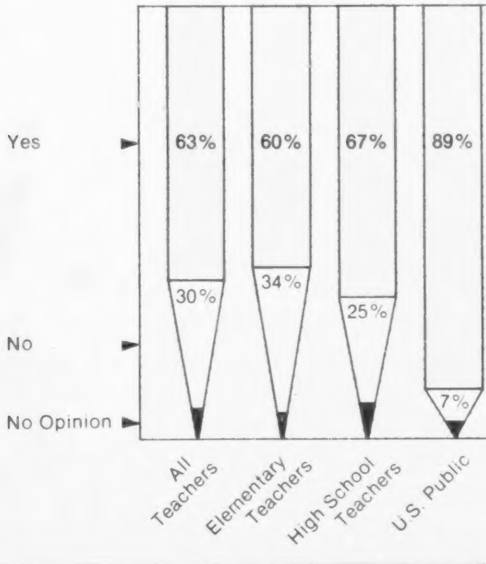


Chart by Mary Miller

The general public, however, does not agree. The public has always favored tougher standards at the high school level, but it rejects, by a margin of 59% to 27%, the raising of college entrance requirements.

The question:

Do you feel that four-year colleges and universities should raise their entrance requirements or not?

	All Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Should	47	27
Should not	39	59
No opinion	14	14

A State Board Examination for Teachers

Approximately two-thirds of the teacher respondents say that they would favor a state board examination to prove their knowledge in the subjects they plan to teach. The U.S. public even more strongly favors the idea of a state board examination for teachers. Eighty-nine percent of the public support the idea.

The question:

In addition to meeting college requirements for a teacher's certificate, should those who want to become teachers also be required to pass a state board examination to prove their knowledge in the subjects they will teach, before they are hired?

	All Teachers %	U.S. Public %
Yes	63	89
No	30	7
No opinion	7	4

Part 2 of the Gallup/Phi Delta Kappa Poll of Teachers' Attitudes Toward the Public Schools will appear in the January 1985 *Kappan*.

Ordering This Poll

In January 1985 Phi Delta Kappa will publish a book, *The Gallup/Phi Delta Kappa Poll of Teachers' Attitudes Toward the Public Schools*, which will contain the installment in this issue of the *Kappan* and the second installment to appear in the January 1985 issue.

Phi Delta Kappa will not be filling orders for reprints of this first portion of the poll. Orders will be taken only for the book.

Watch for an announcement in the January 1985 *Kappan* giving price and information on ordering.

Better Teachers for the Year 2000: A Proposal For the Structural Reform Of Teacher Education

by David L. Clark

Teacher education has been marking time for the past quarter century, says Mr. Clark; basic reforms are needed immediately. He proposes several such reforms, including a reduction in the "current glut of teacher education programs."

TEACHER EDUCATION in the U.S. is once again under attack. In itself, that is not news. But this time the attack is so broadly based and the attackers so influential that current teacher education programs face the very real possibility of extinction.

The problems besetting teacher education have been with us for a long time, and they are not solely of our own making. They reflect matters of general policy choices in the U.S. Indeed, the negative contextual and demographic characteristics of teacher education have become so pervasive that the field has simply learned to live with them.

Whether significant reform in teacher education is possible at all will depend on our achieving a broad consensus about the reforms, a consensus that includes more than just teacher educators. In this regard, the proposal offered in 1928 by Henry Holmes of the Harvard Graduate School of Education is just as telling today as it was more than half a century ago. Holmes said:

> America has yet to be persuaded that the training of teachers is a highly significant part of the making of the nation. In requiring two years of graduate study for the degree of Master of Education we are testing the seriousness of our national faith in the schools.[1]

That faith has still not been tested. Familiarity with teacher education has bred tolerance of the intolerable. And that tolerance has sapped the energy needed to effect major reforms. I challenge readers to view the following demographic and cultural characteristics of the field as if for the first time — as if the reform of these

DAVID L. CLARK (Indiana University Chapter) is a professor of education at Indiana University, Bloomington. An expanded version of this article will appear under the title, "Transforming the Contexture for the Professional Preparation of Teachers," in Lilian Katz and James Raths, eds., Advances in Teacher Education, Vol. II *(Norwood, N.J.: Ablex, forthcoming).*

Our current system is so inadequate that we must stop defending it. Its longevity is the result of an unfortunate compromise with mediocrity.

characteristics were critical to reform in teacher education.

INSTITUTIONAL PROLIFERATION

More than 70% of the four-year colleges and universities in the U.S. operate state-approved teacher training programs. A few of these programs are dreadful on all counts – liberal arts education, subject-matter major, and professional preparation. Many are substandard in one or more of these areas. This proliferation of teacher training programs dilutes the human and financial resources available to the field, impedes reform efforts that require additional funding or staff, and divorces the bulk of the training programs from the centers that produce knowledge about education.

The fact that teacher education programs exist in so many institutions of higher education does not represent a commitment to preparing excellent teachers on the part of the participating colleges. It represents instead a commitment to serving the vocational needs of their undergraduate populations. The majority of these institutions are bachelor's-degree-granting colleges caught up in teacher education because they wish to compete for students with other colleges. Their faculty members are typically not involved in the production of knowledge about education.

In response to a call for the reform of teacher education, David Imig noted not long ago that "the National Center for Education Statistics recently documented that 94% of schools of education are currently in the midst of significant change. . . . Teacher educators are deeply involved in the business of qualitative change."[2] However, qualitative reform is inimical to the interests of the modal teacher training institution in the United States. Most of these colleges have neither the funds nor the faculty to support such change. They will respond to changes in student populations and program requirements as they have responded in the past: by adhering to the minimum level required by the state for certification of teachers. In teacher education, the bulk of the small programs do not represent diversity and richness in training opportunities, as they are so often portrayed; they represent a bland and mediocre sameness that blankets the country.

The current glut of teacher education programs is inexcusable. To defend these programs as if they represented a cherished aim of the profession misses the point. Reducing the number of teacher training programs is a key to attacking weaknesses in the field.

THE UNDERGRADUATE CONNECTION

Donna Kerr struck exactly the right note when she observed, "To be understood, the content, standards, and control of teacher education must be placed within the inhospitable (sometimes hostile) environment of undergraduate education. . . . Teacher education can only be as good as its placement on the undergraduate level allows, and that is not very good."[3]

Why is the undergraduate connection so debilitating? First, it limits the time available for teacher education. There is no realistic possibility that the professional training of secondary teachers can ever be expanded. Nor should it be, since it must already compete with a program of liberal studies and/or a subject-matter major. Second, the connection to undergraduate education limits the amount of money that is spent on professional training. Undergraduate programs compete for resources within a narrow spending range. Even when teacher education manages to break even, it loses; professional training, if it is to be done well, simply must cost more than general education.

As important as any other reason for breaking the undergraduate connection is the link between program proliferation and the placement of teacher training at the undergraduate level. You cannot stop one without stopping the other. As long as teacher training is conducted at the undergraduate level, all bachelor's-degree-granting institutions will insist on their right to train teachers. If *no* teacher education can be offered at the undergraduate level, the competitive advantage in student recruitment will not govern an institution's interest in teacher education.

THE INVISIBLE INTERVENTION

There is a secret that teacher educators carefully keep from critics, reformers, and even themselves. The secret is that no functional program exists for training secondary school teachers in the U.S. There are no demonstrable differences between secondary school teachers trained in teacher training programs and those who walk in off the streets, because there are no significant differences in the undergraduate programs that the two groups pursue.

Imagine that you are an undergraduate student preparing to become a secondary school teacher in a typical teacher training program. Some time during your four-year program, you will take four courses in education – perhaps an introductory course and an educational psychology course when you are a sophomore, a general methods course when you are a junior, and a special methods course in your subject-matter major when you are a senior. Is it any wonder that the eight weeks you spent student teaching stand out in your mind as the only noteworthy part of the program? All the elements of a professional training program are missing: a concentrated period of study in your area of professional expertise, socialization to the profession through intensive work and discussion with other trainees, apprenticeship with a clinical professor committed to your success as a beginning professional, and a chance to practice the application of your professional skills in a variety of settings.

Elementary education majors receive better opportunities, but the shortcomings of their programs are still striking. The emphasis on professional education coursework is hacked out of their undergraduate programs in such a way that few of them have a major in any subject matter. They typically have limited practicum experiences, a weak mentor/trainee relationship, and no period of concentrated professional study.

There is no need to compromise among a liberal arts education, a subject-matter major, and professional education training. We can have all of these – and at a reasonable cost per trainee. *Our current system is so inadequate that we must stop defending it.* Its longevity is the result of an unfortunate compromise with mediocrity made by the academic community, the organized teaching profession, and the public.

THE QUALITY OF TRAINEES

Nothing is simpler in most teacher training programs than adjusting the entrance standards. Moreover, current demographic trends seem to indicate that such a move may be necessary.

The profession of teaching has always drawn the bulk of its recruits from the bottom third of college graduates. Between 1973 and 1982, however, the decline in the scores of intended education majors dropped more sharply on the Scholastic Aptitude Test, the American College

The charm that teacher education held earlier in this century as the common person's route to the professions has become its fatal weakness.

Testing Program test, the Graduate Record Examination, and the National Teacher Examinations than did the scores of the university population in general.[4]

Although the socioeconomic status of teaching and the conditions of the teaching workplace might never consistently attract applicants from the top third of college graduates in the U.S., the field can hardly expect to reform its ills with a talent pool of trainees who exhibit minimal academic performance. Intellectual curiosity and the attainments of scholarship are the essence of the teacher's professional life. The academic quality of teacher trainees – past and present – has been insufficient to sustain any move toward excellence in teaching. And the quality of the entry-level trainees has an impact on the talent pool from which leaders can be drawn for school districts, state education agencies, and teacher training programs.

FUNDING

Spending for teacher training is geared to the cost of general undergraduate academic programs. Kerr noted that – in a 1977-78 study of 20 universities, using an index of 1.00 to represent the cost of general undergraduate education – teacher education did not compare favorably with other undergraduate professional preparation programs. The indexes for four popular programs were: teacher education, 1.04; agriculture, 1.51; engineering, 2.07; and nursing, 2.74.

The long-standing pattern of inadequate support for undergraduate teacher training has been aggravated by the proliferation of master's-level inservice training programs. Because of state certification requirements, these programs (which were easy to package as self-contained courses and which were frequently staffed by part-time, low-cost faculty members) drew students in great numbers. Between 1955 and 1975, colleges with only minimal commitments to undergraduate teacher training found that the master's-level programs for practicing teachers were too lucrative to pass up. In most fields, undergraduate education is used by research universities to offset some of the costs of doctoral study; in teacher education, however, both bachelor's and master's programs serve this purpose.

Additional funding will not solve all the problems of teacher education. But underfunding a program that already has significant structural and demographic disadvantages makes little sense as a public policy, and the outcome has been predictably bad.

INSTITUTIONAL CLIMATE

Schools of education function within a broader college or university setting. That environment has not been congenial to the search for excellence in the professional training of teachers.

As I noted above, most of the instruction provided to undergraduate trainees is offered through the college of arts and sciences or its equivalent. Indeed, much of this instruction is in the form of so-called "service courses." This fact has led some reformers to argue for a universitywide commitment to teacher education.

But such proposals overlook the realities of the university as an organization. In the university, undergraduate teaching and professional training are both low-prestige activities, teacher training in particular is a low-prestige professional field, and service courses provided by one discipline for another are the lowest-prestige teaching activity. On the other hand, nothing is accorded higher prestige in the university community than a commitment to research and development – an area to which teacher education has maintained only a tenuous commitment.

Teacher education has earned the low reputation that it has throughout the university community. Why would an observant mathematics professor, for example, not notice that few able undergraduates seek out teacher education, that the requirements for teacher certification are low, that most of his or her good students cannot afford to become teachers, that university policy makers devote only limited resources to teacher education, and that most teacher educators produce little significant research or scholarly writing? And why, after observing all of this for years, shouldn't the mathematics professor hold both the venture and those who pursue it in low regard?

The charm that teacher education held earlier in this century as the common person's route to the professions has become its fatal weakness. It is now too easily accessible in every sense: geographically near; easy to enter; of short duration; not likely to interfere with the remainder of a student's college program; easy to complete; inexpensive; nonexclusive (it does not rule out other career options); and, until very recently, almost certain to lead to a secure and respectable professional position. These characteristics of teacher education fit together in a harmonious, but ineffective, way.

A REFORM PROPOSAL

Any reform in teacher education must begin with a change in the attitude of the reformists among professional educators. First, having rejected the option of doing away with teacher education, they must also reject any attempt to portray the present pattern of teacher education as adequate (or nearly so) or in the process of undergoing acceptable reform. Such claims are not credible and lead the profession to attempt to defend the indefensible. Second, reformists must be unrelenting advocates of a broadly conceived program of basic structural reform that will, in turn, support long-range improvement in the quality of teacher education students, faculty members, and programs. This means rejecting the argument that no *particular* reform is necessary to *comprehensive* reform. Some reforms are critical.

I can see five changes that are necessary to disrupt the dreary sameness of teacher education and that are thus critical to reform.

- Limit entrance to teacher education programs to students who hold a bachelor's degree with a subject-matter major.
- Require for certification a minimum of one academic year of concentrated preservice study and practice leading to a master's degree.
- Modify standards for state accreditation of teacher education programs to insure that institutions that train teachers can show that their programs integrate the research base on teaching with clinical practice, are staffed by producing scholars and clinical professors, and require of their students appropriate levels of intellectual achievement and excellence in teaching performance.
- Increase the level of intra-institutional funding for teacher education programs to the level of funding for comparable postgraduate training.
- Restrict admission to teacher education programs to students who have demonstrated reasonable academic proficiency in their undergraduate studies and who have exhibited a commitment to service and achievement appropriate to a professional field.

If this modest reform package could be implemented, the demography of teacher education would change sharply. Teacher education would be carried out in no more than 200 to 300 colleges and universities. The minimal conditions of professional preparation would be met. And the quali-

The problem of training good teachers will never be resolved until teaching is economically and professionally a more satisfying career.

ty of candidates and trainers would begin to improve.

Are these modest proposals sufficient? Not at all. But they are necessary. They provide only a starting point for the reform of teacher education. The problem of training good teachers will never be resolved until teaching is economically and professionally a more satisfying career. The one bright spot on the horizon for teacher educators is that they need not stand idly by and wait for the conditions of the teaching profession to improve; they themselves can begin to make changes that will improve the quality of teachers and teaching in American schools. What is required is revolutionary, but it is a gentle revolution.

CALLS FOR REFORM

National reports. All the recent national reports on the reform of education commented on teacher education. The recommendations of the various reports are an indication of how policy makers view the field and its future.

All the reports reflected dissatisfaction with teacher education programs. The authors of the reports made it abundantly clear that they did not trust teacher training institutions either to monitor the quality of the academic experiences they offer to teacher trainees or to lead the needed reform efforts in teacher education.

Almost all the reports recommended reducing the role of teacher training institutions in the preparation and certification of teachers by such means as limiting the number of professional education courses that they offer and providing alternative routes to certification. The Carnegie Report was the sole exception; it recommended a five-year program with the fifth year concentrated on professional education and field experiences.[5]

All the reports recommended raising standards for teacher education students at the point of admission, during their program of study, and at the point of certification.

All the reports paid attention to the conditions of the workplace for teachers; they advocated various systems of recognition or incentives, including salary adjustments, master teacher and career ladder programs, travel stipends, and study grants.

None of the reports recommended disengaging the federal government from education in general or from teacher education in particular. However, the reports did suggest that the necessary reform in teacher education begin at the state level with adjustments in program requirements and standards of admission and then move to the institutional level, where the changes would actually be put into effect.

Federal action. Congress has concentrated its recent efforts at reforming teacher education on the passage of a bill to support precollegiate mathematics and science education programs, including provisions for teacher recruitment and training. The Department of Education has funded a task force called the National Commission on Excellence in Teacher Education — following up on a proposal made by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. The Department also supports 51 projects in state and local education agencies, universities, and other educational institutions aimed at designing incentive pay plans for teachers.

State action. The most extensive reform activity has taken place at the state level. By the end of 1983 a variety of actions had been initiated by state education agencies, state boards, special commissions and task forces, or state legislatures (see Table 1).

The contemporary climate for political action in the area of teacher education is mercurial. The action is spread out across the U.S. in state education agencies, state legislatures, and governors' offices. Disestablishment is still a low-cost response to dissatisfaction with teacher education; it would also be highly visible.

What will occur over the next several years in the various states is difficult to predict. Staff members of the National Commission on Excellence in Education predicted an explosion of activity. They noted that, by November 1983, 165 state-level task forces were at work on education reform; 42 states had reported initiatives in teacher preparation and/or certification.[6] It is conceivable that such activity could expand geometrically in the next few years.

However, it is easy to overestimate state-level activity. Translating executive and legislative aims into state-level programs is a cumbersome and uncertain task, and the danger lies in the uncertainty. Teacher training institutions are viewed with suspicion. Moreover, they are vulnerable because they lack a powerful constituency. Thus disestablishment, alternative routes to certification, and the arbitrary manipulation of standards become appealing political actions. They can be enacted and implemented by state authority; they are immediate and forceful; they cost little or nothing.

A POLITICAL ACTION PROPOSAL

The current pattern of national and state-level reforms in teacher education will leave the basic structural deficiencies

Table 1. Action in the States

Action	Number of States
Loan and scholarship provisions (including forgivable loans)	17
Competency testing for certification	
basic skills	11
academic subject	6
Other forms of higher initial certification requirements	5
Modified standards for admission to teacher education programs	13
Upgraded accreditation standards for teacher education programs	5
Summer institutes for teachers in fields of shortage (mathematics, science, etc.)	5
Other training programs for teachers in fields of shortage	4
Alternative routes to certification	4
Increased requirements for continued certification of teachers	4

Source: Susan Walton, "States' Reform Efforts Increase as Focus of Issues Shifts," *Education Week*, 7 December 1983, pp. 5,19.

Teacher education should flourish in departments of education committed to research, teaching, and the improvement of schools.

of the field intact. Reformers from the professional education community must strive to change that. They must seek to unite the gentle revolution within the profession and the zeal of many political reformers in a joint effort to make a difference. Educators should do a number of specific things immediately.

- *Jump in and support the most acceptable reform report.* The Carnegie Report was right in recommending a strengthened five-year program for teacher preparation. Building on this recommendation, teacher educators should advocate a fifth-year, master's-level requirement for *preservice* teacher education.
- *Ignore the current Administration.* Teacher education has no powerful friends in the Reagan Administration. This does not mean that we have anything to gain by behaving contentiously, but trying to cooperate with this Administration will simply divert the field from its real problems.
- *Use friends in Congress.* The House and Senate will act to prevent the total disengagement of the federal government from teacher education. At least they have shown themselves willing to consider teacher recruitment and loan and scholarship programs for those who will teach in areas of national need.
- *Form effective alliances with professional friends.* Teacher education does have friends among other groups involved in education. Some of these current and potential allies have significant bases of political support. Teacher educators should focus on informing their friends in the various associations about attempts at reform. Among the associations that are likely to be friendly to the notion of significant reform of teacher education are the National Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers, the American Association of School Administrators, the National School Boards Association, and groups with special constituencies, such as the Council for Exceptional Children and the American Vocational Association.
- *Create national reform coalitions among teacher educators.* This is no time to be timid; we must go beyond the regularly constituted associations. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and the Association of Teacher Educators have internal political constraints on their activities that limit their effectiveness on some issues. Groups such as the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land Grant Colleges and Affiliated Private Universities and the ad hoc group of deans from "influential" universities (sometimes called the Deans' Network) that has been meeting at the Wingspread Conference Center are not similarly constrained.
- *Win one major national battle.* Teacher educators must focus on making teacher education a fifth-year (not a five-year) program. With the assistance of nationally recognized reformers and in cooperation with the Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Conference of State Legislatures, the Education Commission of the States, the National Governors' Association, and the national organizations of teachers and administrators, leaders in teacher education could make this program change *the* change of the 1980s.

A POSTSCRIPT

Throughout my analysis, I have assumed two propositions to be self-evident. First, there is and will continue to be a growing body of knowledge about teaching that, if communicated effectively to teachers, will improve their performance. And second, teacher education should flourish in departments of education committed to research, teaching, and the improvement of schools. I maintain that anyone who contests either of these propositions is merely pointing out limitations in current practice that can and will be overcome.

Teacher educators in research-oriented universities who accept these propositions must accept the special obligation to make them come true. They must take on a number of other responsibilities as well.

- They must establish with renewed vigor the link between teacher education and research on teaching and teacher effectiveness. The contention that the university is the best place to train teachers depends on the faculty members' integrating the burgeoning knowledge base about teaching into the teacher preparation program.
- They must recommit themselves to the tradition of scholarship and scholarly productivity. The charge that most bachelor's-degree-granting institutions that operate teacher education programs are divorced from the scholarly community is hollow, since many university-based schools of education are also unproductive. University professors must model the behavior that they insist is necessary by increasing the quality and quantity of their own research and integrating it as much as possible into instructional programs.
- They must extend the scope of their inquiry to include policy research and program development in teacher education. University researchers must conduct more research designed to generate policy options for teacher education (we have few now). They must predict and assess the outcomes of policy alternatives, monitor the field, and disseminate accurate and compelling information to policy makers and practitioners.
- They must develop new teacher training programs based on research. Knowledge-based innovation is an essential part of the work of the teacher education research community. This emphasis on program development will help link research on teaching to teacher education, will help generate policy alternatives for teacher education, and will help foster a tradition of scholarship in the field.

If reform-minded teacher educators insist on conducting their programs of reform within the present national context for the professional preparation of teachers, they will fail. And their failure will lead ineluctably to an apprentice-style training program for teachers, separated from the university and from the knowledge base about teaching. The current reform movements in teacher education are barely under way; they need to be pushed vigorously and quickly. We cannot afford to drag our feet. Teacher education has been marking time for the past quarter century. Basic structural reform is needed. Now.

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1. Henry Holmes, "The Training of Teachers and the Making of a Nation," *Proceedings of the Sixty-sixth Annual Meeting of the National Education Association* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1928), p. 897.

2. David Imig, "A Commentary," *Educational Researcher*, April 1984, p. 19. The article on which Imig was commenting was Bruce Joyce and Renee Clift, "The Phoenix Agenda: Essential Reform in Teacher Education," *Educational Researcher*, April 1984, pp. 5-18.

3. Donna Kerr, "Teaching Competence and Teacher Education in the United States," in Lee Shulman and Gary Sykes, eds., *Handbook of Teaching and Policy* (New York: Longman, 1983), p. 139.

4. Nancy Borkow and K. Forbis Jordan, *The Teacher Workforce: Analysis of Issues and Options for Federal Action* (Washington, D.C.: Congressional Research Service, Library of Congress, November 1983), pp. 11-13.

5. Ernest L. Boyer, *High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America* (New York: Harper & Row, 1983).

6. *Meeting the Challenge: Recent Efforts to Improve Education Across the Nation* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, November 1983). □

Teacher Recertification: A Survey of the States

by Madlyn Levine Hanes and Michael D. Rowls

By 1985 as many as 40 states will require some form of recertification for inservice teachers, say the authors. This trend suggests that conditions may never be better for cooperation between school districts and colleges of education.

RECERTIFYING teachers has become a common way of insuring that inservice teachers continue their education. Indeed, our survey of state departments of education reveals that by 1985 as many as 40 states will require some form of recertification.

Historically, recertification requirements have specified that teachers earn a specific number of graduate credits during an allotted period. Thus colleges of education have secured a rather stable clientele for their graduate courses; seekers of advanced degrees have been joined by teachers seeking recertification. Colleges of education have to some extent become intermediaries between state education agencies and teachers seeking recertification.

More recently, however, the practice of meeting recertification requirements through district-planned activities has become an increasingly common alternative. Typically, such recertification begins when a district submits a plan to the state agency for approval. Usually these plans employ a system that enables teachers to

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Twenty-nine states have such options or expect to have them by 1985. This trend is a profound shift away from recertification solely by coursework.

accumulate points toward the renewal of their certificates by participating in district-sponsored inservice training.

Twenty-nine states have such options or expect to have them by 1985. This trend reflects a profound shift away from recertification solely by coursework in colleges of education. To judge by the lack of comment that this movement has elicited, we may be witnessing the quietest of revolutions.

SOUTH CAROLINA

In the spring of 1982, the South Carolina State Board of Education officially adopted district-planned recertification, which had begun as a pilot project in Greenville, South Carolina. Prior to this time South Carolina recertification typically required teachers to complete six semester hours of college coursework every five years. Under the district recertification plan, teachers may instead accumulate 120 renewal points for participation in district staff development activities during a five-year period. The district plan for staff development must be approved by the state department of education.

When district-planned recertification was first proposed, teacher education groups and college administrators questioned the means of insuring the quality of the program. They also questioned the wisdom of entangling state-mandated staff development responsibilities in the recertification process.

But support for district-level recertification was strong, and the message to the state colleges of education was clear; traditional campus-based courses serving the broader degree program were not adequately serving the staff development needs of individual school districts. However, the district plans could certainly continue to include field-based courses and contractual arrangements between the districts and the universities. When approval of district-sponsored recertification seemed inevitable, both supporters and opponents of this approach began to speak of the benefits of cooperation and of pooling resources for the common goal of improving classroom instruction.

THE NATIONAL PICTURE

The South Carolina case was not unique. The pilot project in South Carolina was modeled on the point system for district recertification already in use in Florida. In addition, similar practices were being used in Georgia and North Carolina.

However, our search of the literature revealed little information on how widespread district-planned recertification had become. Thus we decided to study the status of district-level recertification nationwide. In the spring of 1982 we surveyed the 50 state departments of education and the colleges of education at the major universities in each state.* In all, 43 departments of education responded to our questionnaire. Data from the remaining states were obtained through telephone follow-ups and from the responses of the colleges of education. In states where legislation was pending, we conducted telephone follow-ups through the summer of 1984 (Table 1).

Of the 40 states that have or expect to have recertification requirements, most (34) will require periodic renewal of teaching licenses and will issue no lifetime licenses. Six states have periodic renewal leading to life certificates, which are increasingly linked to advanced professional training. In addition, five states report that some form of periodic renewal has been approved and should be in place by 1985.

A strong trend toward district-planned recertification is also apparent. Twenty-nine of the 40 states that will require recertification said that they will allow inservice training sponsored by school districts to meet at least some of the recertification requirements. By 1985, 18 states will allow all of their recertification requirements to be met at the district level; 11 states will allow varying proportions of their recertification requirements to be met at the district level. In two of these states, California and Texas, the proportion of recertification requirements that can be met by district-planned activities is pending. Even in states in which district-planned recertification is not tied to inservice training – including those states in which recertification is not regulated at all – local inservice training programs compete with colleges and universities for teachers who seek salary increments.

EFFECT ON COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

We surveyed 61 colleges of education at major state-supported institutions to assess the impact on the colleges of district involvement in recertification. At least one institution in each state was included; 49 colleges in 43 states responded. Our questionnaire was designed to determine the nature and extent of university involvement in inservice training, the extent to which resources outside the university are used in inservice training, and the impact of district-planned recertification on college enrollments.

Our findings from this portion of the

"The good news is you're doing an excellent job and creating a great deal of interest in the sexuality class. The bad news is you're doing an excellent job and creating a great deal of interest in the sexuality class."

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*Preliminary data from our survey of the states appeared in Michael D. Rowls and Madlyn Levine Hanes, "Teacher Recertification: The Shift Toward Local Control and Governance," *Journal of Teacher Education*, July/August 1982, pp. 24-28.

Table 1. Certificate Renewal Requirements of All 50 States

	Recertification Required?	Recertification Period (In Years)	Semester Hour Recertification Requirement	Recertification via District-Planned Activities?	Recertification Solely via District-Planned Activities?	% Recertification Credit Allowed via District Activities
Alabama	yes	8-12*	6-9*	yes*	yes*	NA
Alaska	yes	5	6	yes	no	50%
Arizona	yes	6	5	no	NA	NA
Arkansas	yes	6-10*	6	no	NA	NA
California	yes	5(pending)	24(pending)	yes	no	pending
Colorado	yes	5	6	yes	no	66%
Connecticut	no	--	--	--	--	--
Delaware	no†	--	--	no†	--	--
Florida	yes	5	6	yes	yes	NA
Georgia	yes	5-10*	6	yes	yes	NA
Hawaii	no	--	--	--	--	--
Idaho	no	--	--	--	--	--
Illinois	no	--	--	--	--	--
Indiana	yes	5-10*	12-M.S.**	no	NA	NA
Iowa	yes	6-10*	6	yes	no	50%
Kansas	yes	3-5*	6-8*	yes	yes††	50%
Kentucky	yes	10	30-M.S.*	yes	no	33%
Louisiana	no	--	--	--	--	--
Maine	yes	5	6	yes	yes	NA
Maryland	yes	5-10*	6	yes	yes§	50%
Massachusetts	no	--	--	--	--	--
Michigan	yes	6	18**	no	--	--
Minnesota	yes	5	9	yes	yes	NA
Mississippi	yes	5-10*	6	yes	no	50%
Missouri	no	--	--	--	--	--
Montana	yes	5*	4*	yes	yes	NA
Nebraska	yes	3	6	no	NA	NA
Nevada	yes	5-6*	6	yes	yes	NA
New Hampshire	yes	3	3	yes	yes	NA
New Jersey	no	--	--	--	--	--
New Mexico	yes	4-10*	8	yes	no	50%
New York	no	--	--	--	--	--
North Carolina	yes	5	6	yes	yes	NA
North Dakota	yes	5	4	no	NA	NA
Ohio	yes	4-8*	6-18*	no	NA	NA
Oklahoma	yes	5	8	no	NA	NA
Oregon	yes	3-5*	9-24*	yes	yes	NA
Pennsylvania	yes	6*	24**	yes	yes	NA
Rhode Island	yes	3-5*	6-M.S.*/**	yes	no	33%-50%*
South Carolina	yes	5	6	yes	yes	NA
South Dakota	yes	5	6	yes	no	50%
Tennessee	yes	10	6	no	NA	NA
Texas	yes	3-5*	6*/**	yes	pending	pending
Utah	yes	5	6	yes	yes	NA
Vermont	yes	5	6	yes	yes	NA
Virginia	yes	5	6	yes	no	50%
Washington	yes	4**	10*	no	NA	NA
West Virginia	yes	3-5*	6	no	NA	NA
Wisconsin	pending	5	6	yes	yes	NA
Wyoming	yes	5-10*	5-10*	yes	yes	NA

NA = not applicable

*Contingent on candidate's years of successful teaching experience, certificate level, and/or highest degree attained.

**One to several renewals are allowed, leading toward permanent certificate.

†Recertification is required only after dormant period; district alternative to recertification is allowed.

††District alternative to recertification is sole option for recertification of teachers with master's degrees and beyond.

§District alternative to recertification is sole option for first renewal only.

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study are far less uniform than our findings from the survey of state departments of education. Although the colleges recognize the increasing involvement of local, state, and even private agencies in providing inservice training to teachers, they vary considerably in their assessment of the immediate and long-term effects of such efforts on student enrollments.

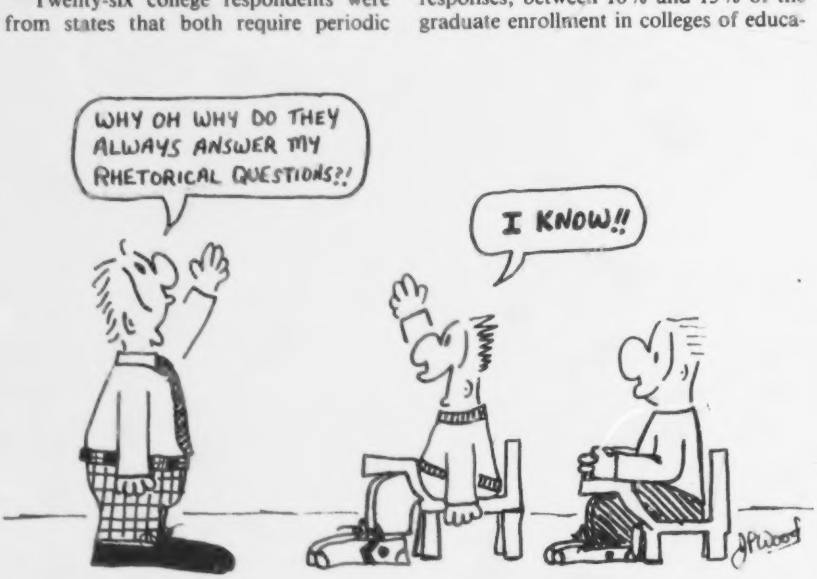
With very few exceptions, the colleges of education reported that they play a major role in providing inservice training to teachers. But that role is almost always shared with state departments of education, school districts, or even private consultants. The kinds of activities that the colleges provide range from workshops conducted by individual faculty members (the most commonly reported activity) to field-based versions of existing courses and special courses designed with a district's specific needs in mind. With the exception of actual credit-bearing courses, university and nonuniversity personnel appear to be offering similar services and meeting similar needs.

Twenty-six college respondents were from states that both require periodic recertification and allow districts to play a role in that process. Enrollments at these colleges would seem to be most vulnerable to the combined effects of the trend toward district-planned recertification; however, estimates of the present and projected enrollments at these 26 colleges do not bear this out. Two-thirds of these colleges reported minimal or no apparent declines in student enrollments; one-third estimated declines of between 25% and 50%. At the same time, the enrollment projections of these colleges were almost uniformly optimistic.

Several factors confuse the issue and make it difficult to explain this apparent discrepancy with any degree of confidence. First, recertification by districts is a relatively new practice; thus estimates of future enrollments may not take full account of its effects. Second, records of college admissions do not always make it possible to distinguish students seeking recertification from those seeking advanced degrees. Finally, and this may be most significant, districts may not be fully exercising their options under the new recertification plans.

What if the districts were to exercise their recertification options fully? What if the number of college courses that could be applied toward recertification were limited in some states and college courses were excluded entirely in others? Certainly the effect on enrollments in colleges of education would be acutely felt.

We can get some idea of the potential magnitude of the decline by considering, in some of the states where district options exist, the percentage of graduate enrollment in colleges of education that is attributable to the renewal of teaching certificates. According to the questionnaire responses, between 10% and 15% of the graduate enrollment in colleges of education at the University of Florida, the University of Alabama, Florida State University, the University of Iowa, the University of Kansas, the University of Vermont, and the University of Virginia is attributable to the renewal of teaching certificates; between 25% and 30% of enrollment in graduate education courses at Auburn University, the University of Colorado at Boulder, the University of Maine at Orono, the University of Mississippi, the University of South Carolina, the University of South Dakota, and the University of Wyoming is attributable to certificate renewal; between 40% and 50% of graduate enrollment in education courses at Georgia State University, the University of Maryland, and the University of Oregon is attributable to recertification.


WHY OH WHY DO THEY ALWAYS ANSWER MY RHETORICAL QUESTIONS?!
I KNOW!!
JPWood

FOR THE FUTURE

The move toward district-planned recertification comes at a time when state requirements for license renewal are increasing. Therefore, it is premature to predict the exclusion of colleges of education from the continuing education of teachers; there may be more than enough recertification requirements to go around. But the existence of district-planned recertification does mean that, without cooperative arrangements between the districts and the universities, the number of teachers who enroll in graduate schools of education is likely to decline to some degree.

At the same time, engaging in recertification will have drawbacks for school districts. Districts that choose to become active in the recertification of teachers must find resources for planning and implementation, for quality control and evaluation, and for record keeping. These activities are costly, but without such safeguards abuses of the system are inevitable.

Thus conditions may never again be better for cooperation between school districts and colleges of education. The colleges need a stable clientele, and offering inservice training to teachers can help provide a stable population of graduate students. The districts can make use of the experience and expertise of the college faculty members in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of their own inservice training efforts. As the states mandate more and more requirements for recertification, they too will need to become partners with the school districts and the colleges of education. Competitiveness and battles for control of the recertification process will be counterproductive. Cooperation among the colleges, districts, and state offices is a far better way to insure the quality of the teaching corps – and of the schools. □